THE MASS MEDIATED SPORTS HERO AS A ROLE MODEL FOR ADOLESCENT MALES MEASURING SELF-CONCEPT CONGRUITY WITH THE PERCEIVED IMAGE OF THE HERO TO PREDICT ROLE MODELING BEHAVIORS

By

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For Seth CJ and X Butlers everywhere

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
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THE MASS MEDIATED SPORTS HERO AS A ROLE MODEL FOR ADOLESCENT MALES MEASURING SELF-CONCEPT CONGRUITY WITH THE PERCEIVED IMAGE OF THE HERO TO PREDICT ROLE MODELING BEHAVIORS

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The sports hero has become a popular and influential figure in modern American society The growth of this social phenomenon can be attributed largely to heavy mass media coverage of sports, with a particular emphasis placed on the star athlete. This emphasis by a variety of media outlets, most notably television, allows fans to learn more about their favorite athletes, both positive and negative, than possible for previous generations of fans Such coverage has created concern over the potential role modeling influence of star athletes, particularly such behavioral influence on adolescents. Two primary areas of interest are the actual behaviors that are most likely to be role modeled and the conditions under which such behavioral role modeling will occur A theoretical foundation to understanding human behaviors is provided by congruity theory According to congruity theory, the closer one's self-concept is to his or her image of a consumer product the more likely this person is to purchase this product.

This study adapts congruity theory to examine behavioral role modeling of mass mediated sports heroes by American adolescent males. Surveys were given to 172 9th and 10th grade male student athletes. These subjects first identified their individual sports hero. Subjects then used Harter's Self Perception Profile for Adolescents to rate their real and ideal self-concepts and the image of the their sports heroes. Finally, subjects rated role modeling of their sports heroes for a variety of behaviors. Regression analyses were completed to examine whether the proximity between self concept and the image of a sports hero, or congruity, correlated with role modeling behaviors of the sports hero. According to the statistical analysis, behavioral role modeling correlated with congruity between real self-concept and the image of the sports hero for a limited number of behaviors. This correlation came primarily with sports-related behaviors. Almost no correlation was found for the congruity between ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero. Additionally, the increasing importance of an area of self concept did not correlate with increased role modeling as predicted.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Star athletes for years have assumed a heroic position in American society Historically, these star athletes were assumed to represent the best of American society As written by Lewis Lord in *U S News & World Report* as an obituary to the recently deceased baseball hero Joe DiMaggio

> the recent death of baseball legend Joe DiMaggio recalls an era when a sports hero embodied America s hopes and dreams Stories about and pictures of DiMaggio are extremely evocative representing as they do the way America was -- or at least wished it was. (1999, p 18)

DiMaggio played his career in an era when television and media did not heavily influence and potentially overexpose star athletes and when such athletes did not command the enormous salaries relative to the society at large. However mass media, particularly television, has had a profound influence in recent years on popular sports and the fans' perspectives of star athletes Certainly fans now have greater opportunity to watch their favorite athletes perform Fans also have greater insight into the personal lives of star athletes, an insight that often has exposed a less than heroic side of these stars The money generated through media coverage has allowed star athletes to command yearly salaries of millions of dollars, not including the income they derive from advertising and endorsements Obviously, the perspective of today's mass mediated sports stars differs greatly from that of the sports heroes of past generations.

For a variety of reasons many journalists and social critics have argued that the sports hero no longer exists in modern American society Popular journalist Mike Lupica wrote in 1994

> America's sports heroes were once larger than life, but today even the idea of the sports hero is dead in America. A great number of sports heroes have fallen off their pedestals in the public eye. Sports heroes have destroyed themselves but the fans and the media have helped them along. The fans want to know too much about the players, and the media are only too willing to give them what they want (p. 62)

Whether the sports hero still exists in America or whether this figure has merely changed with changing social conditions is debatable. However, it is obvious that the star athlete assumes a visible and lofty position in American society.

Of greater importance than the labeling of star athletes is the potential influence of these highly conspicuous persons. It is often assumed that popular star athletes, such as basketball players Michael Jordan and Charles Barkley, are role models to many views, particularly children and adolescents (Peart, 1996). If young sports fans model positive behaviors of athletes, then this relationship has a positive influence on American society. Positive behaviors of star athletes might include athlete skill, good sportsmanship, and community involvement. However, if adolescents model the highly publicized negative activities and characteristics of many star athletes, including drug use, greed, and violent behavior, then this status is highly problematic for society at large (Benedict & Yaeger, 1998; Ketcyian, 1998).

Therefore, the more important debate about sports heroes focuses not only on the characteristics of these athletes, but rather whether these star athletes serve as role models to America's youth. This debate is complicated by the increasing diversity of American society, the diversity of star athletes, and the huge number of sports stars accessible through various media outlets. Some journalists and social critics have written that athletes are no longer role models for American adolescents. Harry Edwards expressed that opinion in *Sport* magazine (1994), writing:

> athletes have long been expected to be role models, but this notion is becoming outdated. The role model expectation is based on the assumption that star athletes and their fans share a uniform group of values, but this is no longer true. Indeed, the racial, ethnic, gender, and

> lifestyle diversity of the United States has shattered all but the pretense of consensus upon which this notion is founded Athletes are sports entertainment celebrities with no more special calling, capability, or obligation to be role models than anyone else in the mass-oriented entertainment business (p 32)

According to this viewpoint, not only have star athletes lost their heroic credential, but due to the complexity of modern American society, these athletes are no longer role models

The question of whether sports heroes still serve as role models for young American sports fans is of great interest to parents educators, and society in general Further, it has become increasingly important to understand the specific behaviors that are most likely to be modeled and the motivations for individual fans to model their own favorite sports stars This research project will address these topics to help gain a better understanding of the function of the modern star athlete in the lives of American adolescents One area of study crucial to understanding the modern American sports hero is mass media theory and research This topic will be reviewed extensively throughout this dissertation

Mass Media Research

Years of academic research has focused on the vast impact mass media, and specifically television, historically have had upon society This school of research has produced theories predicting a range of effects varying from theories examining general societal impact of media to those dealing with a narrow range of media types and populations.

Obvious reasons exist for the ongoing interest in this research agenda. By 1980 televisions were present in 98% of American households, a percentage that has held steady since that time (Harris, 1994b, Andreasen, 1990). Television viewing comprised an inordinate amount of American leisure time, more than four times more than any other

angle activity (Cohen, 1993, Spring, 1993) Americans watch, on average, four hours of television a day and the television remains on for seven hours a day, on average, in the American household (Harris 1994b Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi 1990). Statistics on television in the lives of children are even more staggering American youths, on average watch approximately 1,500 hours of television a year, far greater than the 900 hours the American youth will spend in school annually (Harris, 1994b) With so much of America's time invested in television, it is natural and vital that researchers attempt to understand the various impacts of television content on society

Television and Society

America s interest in television has produced a society somewhat dependent upon television for its daily existence Ball-Rokeach and DeFleur (1976) explained such a relationship with their dependency theory," which suggests that "particularly in a modern urban industrial society, audiences have a high level of dependence on mass media information (Severin & Tankard, 1992, p. 262) America, a highly industrial and increasingly urban society exemplifies such a reliance on mass media information. This dependent relationship creates a need for continuous research on the ramifications of such dependence on American society

One area of particular interest for this research project is the potential for television viewers to copy the behaviors and actions of characters they see on television and to use television figures as role models Much of the prior research has focused on violent behaviors and models, including such notable research works as the Surgeon General s Report on Television Violence *Television and Growing Up* (1972) which established tentative relationships between viewing violent television content and modeling of those behaviors (Lowry & Defleur 1983) Other examples of research concerning modeling of television content have shown that viewers may model anti-social behaviors such as smoking and drinking (Charlton & Blair 1989 Botvin et al 1991, Conrad et al 1987) prosocial behaviors (Cohen 1993 Bandura, 1994) styles

of dress and fashion (Muuss 1975, Wilson & Sparks, 1996 Harris, 1994b) verbal expression (Muuss 1975) and career selection (Muuss 1975, Harris, 1994b)

Research has indicated that many television viewers look to television for role models, and these televised role models have replaced traditional models such as family, peers, and teachers (Jung, 1986, Hendricks 1992 Harris 1994a, Pleiss & Feldhusen, 1995 Role models', 1989; Duck, 1990) This may be particularly true during adolescence, an age when children often reject traditional role models, such as parents, and seek new role models to help establish their own identity (Jung, 1986, Orenstein, 1994 Krech et al. 1962, Hendricks, 1992 Felker, 1974). While one would hope television role models would display positive behaviors, this may not always be the case, and critics have suggested that much of television content portrays potential role models engaged in negative activity (Harris, 1994a) These potentially negative role models on television have drawn growing attention, and they are paramount in the study of the questionable behaviors of popular athletes as role models

Sports Television

Sports television, central to this research project, has received growing attention by networks and viewers alike in recent years. While the first televised sporting event was a college baseball game between Columbia and Princeton in 1939 sports did not gain much attention from television networks until the 1960s (McPherson et al 1989 Davies 1994, Coakley 1994) Sports has been an increasingly vital part of the television industry since that time.

Growing interest in sports television developed from a variety of factors, including a gradual exodus from downtown living areas, where stadiums are located to the suburbs, realization by networks that sports offered an opportunity to boost ratings during traditionally slow times, such as Sunday afternoons and the ability for advertisers to consistently attract young male viewers (Davies, 1994 Nixon 1984 Harris, 1994a, Harris, 1994b Katz 1996 McPherson et al 1989 Coakley 1994, Clarkin, 1990)

Sports programming has increased through to the 1980s, when, on average, sports programming accounted for 15% of total programming on commercial television, a percentage that has held steady through the mid 1990s (Harris, 1994a, Coakley, 1994) Several television networks including ESPN and Fox Sports, are now devoted solely to sports content, 24 hours a day making sports extremely accessible to television viewers

Along with the increase of sports media coverage has come a change in the content of televised sports Much of this can be attributed to the enormous amounts of money networks pay for the rights to televise amateur and professional sports. For example, in 1998 four networks (ABC CBS, ESPN, and FOX) agreed to pay the National Football League (NFL) $17 6 billion over eight years for the right to broadcast professional football (Goldberg, 1998) This amount far surpasses the amount teams receive each year in ticket revenues. The National Basketball Association (NBA) has signed a similarly lucrative contract with two networks (NBC and Turner), receiving $2 4 billion for four years (Farhi 1997) This does not include revenues received from lesser contracts signed with local networks for regional sports coverage. Given the dependence of major sports leagues on television for financial success, popular sports are influenced greatly by television networks and orchestrated for television viewing even more so than for live spectating This coverage may cause the television audience to believe that they are watching the real game, not a media representation of the game (Temple, 1992, Coakley 1994, Kinkeme & Harris 1992, Nixon, 1994 Harris, 1994b) In other words viewers may be oblivious to the potential influence of networks to shape and influence the sporting events regularly seen on television Additionally the exorbitant prices of tickets to professional sporting contests (an average NBA ticket cost $36 32 in 1998 an average NFL ticket cost $40 93 in 1998) has made live attendance of such professional sporting contests virtually impossible for most Americans (Fehr, 1997, Heath & Solomon 1997) Therefore professional sports an American institution rivaling religion in popularity and societal influence (Prebish, 1985, Novak 1976, Sage 1993), has

become a phenomenon Americans see almost exclusively on television (Temple, 1992 Chandler, 1985) Coakley (1994) explained

> the emphasis comes in a form that makes it seem as if the "real" game is the one on television, not the one seen in the stadium In other words, television has constructed sports and spectator experiences in important ways. It s happened so smoothly that most people think that when they watch a game on television they are experiencing sports in a "natural" form! (p 332)

What most Americans see and know about professional sports, they see and know from television Considering the potential extent to which television can impact society, sports media should receive considerable attention from academics

Television Stars and Sports Heroes

A focal point of televised sports and the focal component for this research project is the star athletic performer Through the process of mediation -- using narration, visuals, intimacy with particular athletes and constant fixture on star performers -- television has placed emphasis on the best individual performers and their greatness (Duncan & Brummett, 1987 Weisman 1993 Katz, 1993 Harris, 1994b, Kinkema & Harris, 1992, Hargreaves, 1986, Figler & Whitaker, 1995, Shugar, 1988) Harris (1994b) wrote,

> often the "star mentality" of television and the entertainment business in general affects the presentation of sports in the media. The superstars are exalted and glorified far more than, for example, a show of fine teamwork on the field Stories about sports tend to focus on individual performers, much like stories about religion focus on the Pope or Jerry Falwell or stories about government tend to focus on the president. (p 129)

This emphasis on the star has been accomplished not only through the actual coverage of regular sporting events, but also through other sports media, including sports highlights programs pre- and post game programs and entertainment-based programs that highlight individual athletes over team performance (Kinkema & Harris, 1992, Figler & Whitaker, 1995, Harris, 1994b) Networks have promoted individuals in their

ongoing effort to increase the popularity of their programming, and the respective sports leagues hope to prosper from this coverage through the potential sale of merchandise from these star performers and overall increased interest in their sports product. This emphasis on the individual has created a society in which television sports viewers can learn more about popular athletes than in prior times, and the star sports figure has become one of the most prominent and well known persons in American society (McPherson, 1989; Nixon, 1984; Harris, 1994a; Harris 1994b; Coakley, 1994; Duncan & Brummett, 1987; Kinkema & Harris, 1992).

This focus on individual star athletes in sports television has promoted the growing societal interest in the sports hero. As previously mentioned, the sports hero has been a part of American society for years before the existence of television, but television has contributed to changes in this construct (Porter, 1983; Smith, 1973; Voigt, 1978). Before the growth of sports television, sports heroes such as baseball legend Babe Ruth were accessible local figures, and many fans had the opportunity to meet their sports heroes in person (Walden, 1986; Katz, 1993). However, the lack of heavy coverage and scrutiny from mass media kept fans from knowing all the details, both good and bad, of the lives of their sports heroes. Due to television's current ubiquitous presence, while the sports fan today will not personally know his or her sports heroes or even have the opportunity to watch them play in person, these fans likely will know much more about their heroes (Walden, 1986; Nixon, 1984; Harris, 1994a; Harris, 1994b; McPherson et al., 1989; Malone, 1993; Paterno, 1994). Television has allowed greater access to sports heroes than ever before, as Caughley (1984) explained: "Even an average fan knows more than a baseball player's name. He also knows his team, uniform number, position, batting average, salary, and something about his appearance, personality, medical history, and off-the-field conduct" (p. 32).

Despite the increasingly visible information about the negative actions of popular sports stars, including rape, drug abuse, and a variety of criminal activities, which has

lead some theorists to question whether the sports hero still truly exists in American society (Rollin 1983, Crepeau 1985, Walden, 1986 Smith, 1973 Fairlie, 1978, Nixon, 1984 Harris 1994a Farrey 1997 Ryan 1995, Coakley, 1994 Nack & Munson, 1995 Goldberg, 1995), sports figures have frequently been chosen as heroes in surveys of America teens ("Heroes of" 1990 Simons, 1997, Harris, 1994a, Harris, 1994b) Such survey results refute the idea of a recent extinction of the American sports hero and instead infer that the hero exists as a constantly evolving construct (Fishwick, 1983 Fishwick 1985 Rollins 1983 Harris 1994a) In other words, the qualities once considered essential for the sports hero may be very different than those of the modern sports hero

Sports fans now seem willing to overlook negative or perhaps unheroic, activity in certain areas of the lives of their sports heroes. This is likely due to the impressive physical skills of the popular sports figure A star athlete while performing spectacular, seemingly impossible feats on the playing field or in the arena, transcends typical mortal athletic potential and appears if only for that brief period of time, almost god like (Nixon, 1984, Orrard, 1982, Goodman 1993 Walden, 1986, Birrell & Cole, 1981, Loy & Hesketh, 1984) Sports may be one of the few remaining areas of American society in which one consistently can find greatness, and fans may be willing to overlook negative activity to embrace this greatness in their sports heroes. Thus, coupled with the astonishing growth of sports television, has made sports a very popular and frequent area from which American society finds its heroes. As Joan Ryan wrote (1995), "Every culture has its gods, and ours hit baseballs, make baskets, and score touchdowns" (p 85). Regardless of the views one takes of the heroic condition in American society, the fact remains that the popular sports figure has continued to grow as a popular choice of hero for American society and television has contributed greatly to this growth.

Societal Functions of Sports Heroes

A more clouded but perhaps more important topic is the popular belief that athletes inherently serve as role models so much so that the terms "hero" and "role model" are often used interchangeably ("Role models" 1989, Malone, 1993, Harris, 1994b, Simons, 1997 Wilson & Sparks 1996 Parker & Lord 1993, Taylor 1991, "Michael Jordan's " 1991, Goodman, 1993) In a column authored for *Sports Illustrated* magazine NBA basketball star Karl Malone (1993) wrote, "We don t choose to be role models, we are chosen Our only choice is whether to be a good role model or a bad one" (p 84). A lesser held, contrary opinion is that while popular mass media figures such as sports heroes may be idolized, they often do not serve as role models because they are not perceived as similar enough to fans of the hero (Groller, 1995 Goodman 1993) In other words, while fans may enjoy watching their sports heroes these fans cannot actually view these heroes as role models due to the vast perceived differences between themselves and these athletes. Yet another suggestion is that sports heroes can serve as role models to certain people for certain areas of their life (Simons, 1997 Wilson & Sparks 1996 Harris, 1994a, Harris, 1994b, Dononhew, Helm, & Haas, 1989; Nixon, 1984) Research about sports heroes should address whether the sports hero is a role model and the specific conditions under which a sports hero is most likely to serve as a role model

Authors have addressed the potential for mass media figures to serve as role models Caughley (1984) explained the potential relationship between media figures and their fans writing,

> relationships are those in which the media figure becomes the object of intense admiration. Such relationships approximate the general stereotypic conceptualization of the fan but much more is involved than esthetic appreciation Characteristically the admired figure comes to represent some combination of idol hero alter ego, mentor and role model (p 53)

As popular sports heroes have become mass mediated figures they too are subject to the same types of relationships with their fans Many athletes have become aware of their potential influence on the viewing public. Weisman (1993) wrote on this topic

> athletes' behavior whether it involves drug use the shoes they wear or their views on society, will be emulated They are taught, very early in their careers to be the best example of American manhood, or at the very least to escape with all their defects undetected. (p 166)

In order for such a definitive statement to be made about the influence of televised star athletes, detailed research should address the specific impact of these mass mediated figures Critical insight and research in this area would help society to further understand the impact of the positive and negative actions of sports heroes

Self-Concept Theory

Importance of Self-Concept

One theoretical framework used to study motivations for human behavior is self-concept theory (Grubb & Grathwohl 1967, Ross, 1971, Dolich, 1969, Hattie, 1992 Baughman & Welsh, 1962, Sirgy, 1983, Loundon & Bitta, 1979 Krech et al 1962) Humans typically develop their wants and goals around maintaining and improving their self-concept, which can be defined as "myself as I see myself" (Kretch et al 1962 Loundon & Bitta, 1979 Sirgy 1983, Hattie, 1992) This desire to maintain and improve self-concept is a strong predictor for purchase intentions (Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967, Ross, 1971 Dolich, 1969 Hattie, 1992, Baughman & Welsh, 1962, Sirgy 1983, Loundon & Bitta, 1979 Krech et al 1962) Self-concept theory also has been linked to behaviors such as choosing friends and academic efforts in school (Fetker, 1974, Hattie, 1992)

While most of the research on self-concept and behavior has focused on consumer behaviors, the link between self-concept and behavior has been strongly established and

is a valuable tool for future investigation into human behavior. Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) explained the importance of this topic writing,

> the self represents a totality which becomes a principal value around which life revolves, something to be safeguarded and, if possible, to be made still more valuable. An individual's evaluation of himself will greatly influence his behavior. (p. 204)

Felker (1974) provided a more detailed explanation for the relationship between self-concept and behaviors, writing,

> the role of self-concept is three-fold. The self-concept operates as a mechanism for maintaining inner consistency; the self-concept determines how experiences are interpreted; and the self-concept provides a set of expectancies. Each of these three factors is a powerful determiner of behavior. (p. 7)

Although self-concept theory has not previously been used to examine role modeling behaviors of sports heroes, use of this theory, which predicts that people continuously try to maintain and improve self-concept, provides a promising new framework to examine the motivations for such role modeling.

Role Modeling Sports Heroes and Self Concept Theory

This research project will look at the behaviors involved in role modeling sports heroes as related to self-concept. Similar types of studies have been done for consumer behaviors, determining that similarity between self-concept and product image correlates with purchase behaviors (Dolich, 1969, Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967, Ross, 1971, Hatha, 1992, Baughman & Welsh, 1962, Sirgy, 1983, Loundon & Bitta, 1979, Kroeh et al., 1962). Similarly, researchers have suggested that mass media figures can serve as role models, particularly for adolescents (French & Pina, 1991, Bandura, 1992, Harris, 1994b, Caughley, 1984). This research project incorporates these two concepts while examining a increasingly popular, criticized, and critical aspect of American society, the sports hero.

Problem Statement

Americans, and particularly American adolescents, historically have held up popular sports figures as heroic figures. Thus is not surprising, as theorists have asserted that the need for heroes is inherent in human societies (Fishwick, 1983; Walden, 1986, Harris, 1994a, Schlesinger, 1968, Browne 1983), and sports has become one of America's most celebrated pastimes and personifications of American dreams and values (Nixon, 1984; Porter, 1983, Goodman, 1993; Oriad 1982; Ryan 1995, Walden, 1986; Smith, 1973; Coakley, 1994; Crepeau, 1985, Harris, 1994a, "Role models", 1989; "Michael Jordan's", 1991).

Given the growing mass media interest in professional and major collegiate sports, Americans now have more access to watch star athletes than American sports fans of generations past ("T V sports", 1996; McPherson, Curtis, & Loy, 1989; Coakley 1994; Davies, 1994, Clarkin, 1990; Harris, 1994a; Harris, 1994b, Kellner 1996; Caughley, 1984, Hargreaves, 1986, Kinkema & Harris, 1992, Denzin, 1996) Accordingly, the opportunity to find heroes in sports appears endless. In a society where popular athletes have become incredibly wealthy figures about which spectators know more than ever before, the issue of choosing a particular sports hero is a complex phenomenon. While theorists have suggested that heroes no longer truly exist in America (Boorstin, 1961, Klapp, 1962, Monaco, 1978, Lubin, 1968; Kelly, 1993, McLuhan, 1964), and many of today's popular athletes have displayed behaviors that certainly appear "unheroic," athletes are still popular choices as heroes among American youths and adolescents ("Heroes nil" 1990, "Role models", 1989, Wilson & Sparks 1996, Simons, 1997). Television has only aided this process, bringing heroes and hero worshippers together more easily (Higgs, 1978). However, one is left to wonder exactly what the impact of these sports heroes is on American adolescents.

Critics and fans of sports heroes alike have suggested that popular American sports heroes serve as role models for American adolescents (Harris, 1994a, Harris, 1994b "Role models' 1989 Malone 1993, Simons 1997, Wilson & Sparks 1996 Parker & Lord, 1993 Taylor 1991, "Michael Jordan's", 1991 Goodman, 1993) Little scientific research has addressed the motivations for such role modeling or the conditions under which such role modeling is most likely to occur for the individual adolescent Socioeconomic status, race and parental and peer influences have been suggested as potential factors affecting such role modeling (Harris, 1994a, "Role models", 1989, Simons, 1997 Wilson & Sparks 1996 Michael Jordan's', 1991 Goodman, 1993) However these factors do not address the individual role modeling decisions of each adolescent and the motivations for the individual to model the behaviors of his or her own particular sports hero One area of research which has examined motivations for individual behavioral intentions is the study of individual self-concept and how this self-concept relates to the images of other objects (Dolich 1969; Grubb & Grathwohl 1967 Ross 1971 Hattie, 1992 Baughman & Welsh, 1962 Sirgy 1983, Loundon & Britta 1979, Krech et al., 1962) This research on self-concept has primarily been used to better understand consumer behaviors and individual purchase decisions However, self-concept research also presents a potential means to better understand a variety of behaviors, including the emulation of sports heroes addressed in this research.

This theoretical approach to studying adolescent role modeling of sports heroes has lead to the following research questions.

1) Among adolescent males how do the relationships between self-concept and perceived images of a sports hero relate to behavioral intentions to role model a sports hero? In other words how do the perceived similarities and differences between one's individual self-concept and the image of a sports hero relate to one s intentions to emulate that sports hero?

2) What specific role modeling behaviors are most strongly related to these relationships between self-concept and the image of a sports hero?

3) Which areas of self-concept are most influential in predicting adolescent role modeling of a sports hero?

Chapter 2, the Literature Review, addresses prior research related to these questions. Specifically, each construct used in this study is defined and discussed. Prior research on related subject matter is reviewed. Finally, Chapter 2 addresses areas of research that have not been studied adequately as well as the ways that this research project adds to the base of knowledge and contributes meaningful information to the academic community.

Three additional chapters are included in this dissertation. Chapter 3, Methods, addresses the specific methods and statistical analysis used in this dissertation. Chapter 4, Results and Discussion, details the results of the stated analysis. Finally, Chapter 5, Conclusions, addresses the results, discusses the importance of these results, and explains potential reasons these results were found.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews relevant prior research. Additionally, important terms are defined for use in this research. Finally, the contribution of this research project is discussed. The topics reviewed in this chapter, in order, are as follows: role modeling characteristics of the sports hero, the sports hero as a role model, self concept, and self concept congruity theory.

Role Models and Behavioral Modeling

Sports heroes are widely assumed to be role models, especially for children and adolescents, although such assumptions are often made based on personal opinion and lack concrete support (Malone, 1993; Harris, 1994a; Harris, 1994b; Wilson & Sparks, 1996; Nack & Munson, 1995; Taylor, 1991; Walden, 1986; "Michael Jordan's", 1991; Simons, 1997; "Role Models", 1989). One primary purpose of this research is to determine how the relationships between self-concept and the image of sports hero determine role modeling behaviors of the sports hero. Therefore, an adequate understanding of the role model and its function and influence is necessary. This section of the literature review defines role models, explains the process of imitating role models, and outlines the conditions under which such modeling is most likely to occur. Finally, issues specific to role models and adolescents are discussed.

The term "role model," like self-concept, has been used vaguely in reference to a variety of different constructs, so it is necessary to define this term specifically. A role

model has been described as ' someone whose life and activities influenced the respondent in specific life decisions" (Bassoon & Owe 1980, p 559) This description does not address actual copying of behaviors or intentions to copy behaviors, but rather presents the role model as one influence in such intentions Other definitions assert that role models are" adults who are worthy of imitation in some area of their life" (Pleiss & Feldhusen 1995 p 163) or 'someone who demonstrates the appropriate behavior for a specific role or relationship with another person" (Jung 1986 p 528) Role models generally exert influence over one of three areas of life educational, occupational or personal (Bell 1970, Pleiss & Feldhusen, 1995)

Many of the descriptions of the role model imply the role model is a positive influence whose actions should be copied and emulated In other words, people who display negative behaviors, such as wife abuse, drug use or poor performance in employment or school, are not role models (Malone, 1993, 'Role models", 1989 Richards, 1998 Golden, 1986) However this research adopts the perspective that role models can exhibit both positive and negative behaviors and characteristics. A description written by Hendricks (1992) gives insight into this position, noting, "We all have role models, some positive some not so positive They serve as archetypes, proxies we scrutinize as guides for our own actions and perhaps too as templates for possible selves" (p 7)

Role modeling is a component of the more general term modeling. In fact, the term 'model" is often interchanged with "role model While role modeling certainly involves the processes of modeling, a clear distinction will be made to allow for sufficient definition of this term for this research Role modeling refers to a more specific process than the more generic process of modeling of behaviors Specifically modeling is a measure of the influence of observed behavior on an observer (Bandura & Walters, 1963, Bandura, 1977, Bandura, 1994 Jung 1986, Mauss, 1975) This process refers to a specific set of behaviors that are not necessarily tied to a specific role, and this process

can be replicated in laboratory settings. For example, learning the technical processes involved in juggling from a model in a laboratory setting would be an example of modeling. The person demonstrating the juggling behaviors would be the model. However, role modeling, while it does involve the technical processes of modeling, also involves an emotional attachment between the observer and role model. Jung (1986) explained distinct differences in the two constructs. "Modeling does not imply that there is any emotional tie between the model and observer. In contrast, many instances of role modeling ... seem to require some affectional bond for the model to be effective in influencing the observer" (p. 527). Role modeling involves a relationship between role model and observer, and such relationships can influence behavior through learned roles in specific situations (Hendricks, 1992; Brim, 1968; Bell, 1970; Jung, 1986; Miller, 1983). Therefore, the process of role modeling involves adopting and modeling behaviors based on an emotional tie between observer and model, and this process of modeling involves context and relationships with the role model. In order for role modeling to occur, the role model and the observer must interact and the observer must identify the role model as such (Bell, 1970; Basow & Howe, 1980).

One popular view of role model influence is that everyone has role models, and these figures serve as guides for our own actions and possible templates for our own selves (Hendricks, 1992; Gecas & Mortimer, 1987). Such influence can be behavioral and attitudinal. However, behavioral influence has been studied and discussed more frequently than attitudinal influence by researchers and theorists (Basow & Howe, 1980; Almquist & Angrist, 1971; Hendricks, 1992; Jung, 1986), and these influences are the focal point of this research project.

Observers are not limited to one role model, and it is quite normal for observers to have several role models for different aspects of their lives (Jung, 1986). Additionally, some role models influence more aspects of observers' lives than other role models (Gecas & Mortimer, 1987; Basow & Howe, 1980). Hendricks (1992) explained this,

writing "Some models are relevant in specific realms only – that of the older, wiser colleague at work or the sports figure we seek to emulate Others cut across specific roles and have a more profound influence on our lives" (p 7) Most descriptions of role modeling refer to the process of copying the behaviors of the role model although they also can in some circumstances, refer to avoiding behaviors of the role model and actively seeking alternative behavioral techniques to those displayed by the role model (Pleiss & Feldhusen 1995 Jung, 1986) While including such avoidance techniques broadens the definition of the role model this research specifically examines the intention to model the behavior of a role model not the intention to avoid certain behaviors

Many available sources of role models exist Persons who have frequent interaction with and are well known by the observer, including parents teachers, peers co-workers, and siblings, typically are popular role models for adolescents. (Schaefer, 1978, Muuss 1975, Basow & Howe 1980, Malgady et al 1990 Hackett et al , 1989; Almquist & Angrist 1971, Betz & Fitzgerald 1987) In addition to personal acquaintances mass media figures also can serve as role models (Caughlay 1985 Schaefer 1978 'Role models', 1989 Jung, 1986, Pleiss & Feldhusen, 1995, Duck, 1990) In contrast to personally known role models such as parents and peers mass media figures including famous athletes, actors, and politicians, have the potential to serve as role models for large numbers of people due to their mass exposure.

Researchers and critics have taken varying positions on the potential influence of mass-mediated figures such as sports hero One popular belief is that popular mass-mediated figures, particularly those portrayed as positive or heroic in their behaviors inherently serve as role models due to their stature and position in society In fact, the terms "public hero" and "role model" are often used interchangeably without regard to a distinction between the two (Pleiss & Feldhusen, 1995 p 163 Malgady et al , 1990, Hunter 1983). Conversely some have concluded that a public hero cannot truly be a role model because there is almost no potential for interaction between the role

model and the observer (Singer, 1991, Hall & Post Kammer, 1987). Both of these contradictory opinions are too inflexible to fully summarize the potential influence of the mass media figure and the true influence of this figure lies somewhere inbetween these viewpoints. Research has indicated that mass-mediated figures, particularly those who are considered heroes, can serve as role models (Pleiss & Feldhusen, 1995, "Role models", 1989, Schaefer, 1978). Bandura, 1981. "Michael Jordan's", 1991, Malone, 1993, Kellner, 1996, Weinman, 1993, Wilson & Sparks, 1996). Parker and Lord (1993) have echoed this sentiment in research with African American males, noting that "highly visible and successful individuals (such as sports personalities or entertainers) make excellent role models for young Black males" (p. 102). Therefore, while popular media figures are not inherently role models, they certainly have the potential to be role models.

Media users often develop intense imaginary relationships with their favorite mass media figures, and these relationships contribute to the role modeling potential of such figures (Caughley, 1985. McEvoy & Erikson, 1981). McEvoy and Erikson (1981) called these public heroes "reference idols." Reference idols, although not personally known by the observer, become part of the reference group of the observer, "a personification of values and behaviors perceived as important to the individual" (p. 114). The authors explained the potential influence of these mass media heroes: writing, "Reference idols, real or fictitious, can affect the formation of attitudes, beliefs, identities, and behaviors" (p. 114). In other words, mass media heroes provide example attitudes, beliefs, identities, and behaviors that individuals use in creating, modifying, and/or maintaining/reinforcing their self-concept. It is these potential influences of mass media figures that will be the focus of research for this dissertation.

In summary, it is necessary to define the term "role model" for use in this dissertation. For this study, the role model is a mass mediated figure (in this instance, a sports figure). The processes of role modeling involve modeling of specific behaviors of an admired figure. Finally, an affectionate bond must exist between the observer and the

role model unlike laboratory models. Therefore role modeling will occur as part of daily life, making the study of role modeling one of naturalistic inquiry, not laboratory observation

Conditions of Role Modeling

Many researchers have studied the conditions or factors which make observers more likely to adopt the behaviors of a role model These conditions are reviewed in this section One primary factor is perceived personal similarity between observer and role model (Hackett et al , 1989, Jung, 1986 Decker & Nathan, 1985, Owens & Ascione, 1991 Wilson & Sparks 1996, Muuss 1975 Bandura, 1994, "Role models", 1989 Malgady et al , 1990 Bumstein et al 1961 Stotland & Patchen, 1961, Stotland et al., 1962 Rosekrans, 1967) People are more likely to adopt the behaviors of a role model whom they perceive as having similar attributes to themselves. Specific attributes include sex, race and cultural identification Wilson and Sparks (1996) provided examples of this through interviews with African-American teens in reference to their sports heroes They specifically studied African American teenagers and their role modeling of African American basketball stars. They wrote, in reference to potential modeling of clothing styles, "Many of the Black adolescents gave responses acknowledging the celebrity Black athletes definitive influence on popular style through athletic apparel and the athletic-apparel commercial This influence was manifested most often in the respondents desire to look like the celebrity athlete' (p 414) These adolescents were more likely to use African American athletes as their role models due to perceptions of racial similarity cultural identity and masculine identity Therefore, the perceived similarities between popular male, African American athletes and male African American adolescent fans contributed greatly to this selection of role models

Perceived self-efficacy of the observer also can affect the choice of a role model (Simons, 1997, Weinman, 1991 "Role models' 1989 Bandura 1994) Self-efficacy refers to the a belief that one can successfully model an action (Bandura, 1994) As the

individual becomes more confident in his or her ability to perform a behavior, he or she will be more likely to model such behaviors

Another factor influencing modeling is the perceived benefits the role model gains from his or her behaviors (Osthud, 1974 Midgley, 1976) Role models who are rewarded for their actions are more likely to be imitated than those who are not rewarded This has lead to the belief that popular mass-mediated role models are often very appealing to observers because they are well compensated with fame and wealth (Simons, 1997, Wilson & Sparks, 1996) Viewers, therefore, will attempt to role model those behaviors perceived as instrumental in achieving such fame and wealth. Simons (1997) explained this appeal of wealthy, mass-mediated figures as potential role models to certain groups of adolescents, using basketball star Michael Jordan as an example Simons wrote,

> a lot of them (low income African-American adolescents) will tell you they want to be like Mike. In this context, being like Mike doesn't mean becoming an entrepreneur, a corporate spokesman, or a college graduate. It means being a high flying, windmill slammer of a ballplayer (p 50)

In other words the most glamorous aspects of Michael Jordan (athletic fame, financial riches from athletic accomplishment) made Jordan appealing as a role model to these adolescents

Self-Concept as a Condition for Role Modeling

Most research on the impact of role models, and specifically athletes as role models, has focused on the characteristics of the potential role model, the societal role of the role model and easily observable characteristics of the observer such as race, socio-economic status, and perceived positive or negative value to society (Simons, 1997, Malone, 1993, "Role models", 1989 Wilson & Sparks 1996 Chen, 1997, Golden, 1996 Walden 1986, Pleiss & Feldhusen, 1995) This dissertation addresses the relationship between role model and observer from a slightly different perspective. Instead of measuring the aforementioned characteristics, this research examines

individual perceptions of the self or self-concept, and the influence self-concept has in determining role modeling behaviors. Of primary importance for this research are the relationships between self-concept and the image one has of his role model (for this research, the sports hero). In other words, this research attempts to better understand whether one's behavioral intentions to model the behaviors of a role model are influenced by how similar or dissimilar one's self-concept is to his or her perceptions of his or her sports hero. This approach of examining self-concept has not been widely used to investigate behavioral intentions of role modeling. However, this research approach has been used quite frequently in marketing research, and this dissertation will borrow investigative strategies from such marketing studies. (See later section on "self-concept" for a detailed description of this construct and a review of research and theory in this area.)

Marketing researchers have provided a foundation for the use of self-concept in studies of behaviors and behavioral intentions (specifically purchase intentions). First, they have established that self-concept maintenance and enhancement is a factor in determining behavior (Sirgy, 1983; Landon, 1974; Birdwell, 1968; Dolich, 1969, Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967, Ross, 1971; Delozier & Tillman, 1972, Loundon & Batta, 1979; Kroch et al., 1962, Wells & Marwell, 1976, Baughman & Welsh, 1962; Felker, 1974, Frey & Carlock, 1989). Several studies have established that consumers choose to purchase certain products based on the similarity between their reported self-concept and their perceived image of a product (Dolich, 1969, Rose, 1971; Delozier & Tillman, 1972; Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967, Hattie, 1992, Baughman & Welsh, 1962). These studies have shown that individual perceptions of self (self-concept) can influence behavioral intentions when viewed in reference to the individual perceptions of a consumer product. Therefore, each individual has perceptions that influence his or her behaviors, and these perceptions may be completely different than the perceptions of

another observer This is the most important justification for the use of self-concept to examine behavioral intentions for this dissertation

In the aforementioned consumer studies, subjects rated their perceptions of consumer products and these ratings were compared to the individual self-concepts of these subjects From these comparisons researchers examined the role of self-concept in influencing consumer behaviors toward selected products However this dissertation looks at perceptions and influence of sports heroes, not consumer products. Therefore, it is necessary to review the characteristics of popular mass-mediated sports heroes and their potential to serve as role models for adolescents. This is the focus of the next section

The Sports Hero as a Role Model Figure

The Hero

The term "hero" is a heavily cited yet frequently changing construct in American society However the hero has been a vital part of societies throughout history, and a brief review of this evolution will assist in better understanding the qualities of the modern hero and, more specifically, the modern sports hero

The term "hero" dates back to ancient Greece and originally was defined as "a superior man, embodiment of composite ideals" (Fishwick, 1979 p. 340) Qualities that the Greeks associated with the hero included an intimacy with gods, superiority to other humans, and an abundance of the best of human characteristics, such as strength and courage (Bowra, 1969, Brombert, 1969 Whitman, 1969, Fishwick, 1983) The ancient hero was a pre-destined character, and he was inherently greater than the normal man (Macmechan, 1840 Lehman, 1928) Another historical name for the heroic figure is the Great Man (Hook 1957, Wecter, 1941)

According to Carlyle's Theory of the Hero, the hero is one who is destined for greatness from a divine source (Carlyle, 1841, Lehman, 1928; Smith, 1973, Wecter, 1941, Fishwick, 1985). Following this theoretical perspective, heroes were predestined by God as leaders to move the world forward (Carlyle, 1941; Lehman, 1928; Campbell, 1949, Wecter, 1941). Examples of Great Men in history include Moses, Frederick the Great, and Napoleon.

The evolution of the hero has been quite pronounced in the 20th century, particularly in a relatively youthful American society. The youth of this society allowed Americans to define the characteristics of their own heroic types (Hook, 1957, Lubin, 1968, Wecter, 1941, Lerner, 1957). Theorists of this period asserted the hero was not pre-determined, but instead was a product of his society and those who followed him (Hook, 1957; Klapp, 1962). Additionally, an increasingly complex society has allowed for a variety of different heroic types and characteristics. In other words, 20th century America experienced a fragmentation of heroic types, allowing for greater heroic diversity and more heroic choices than in ancient Greek society.

Instead of possessing God-like qualities, the American hero of the mid-20th century had a closer relationship with the common man (Wecter, 1941; Hook, 1957). This presented a strong contrast with European Great Men of that time period, including Hitler and Mussolini. Americans, increasingly fearful of such powerful and destructive heroic figures, did not embrace Great Men as their heroic choices. They instead chose more familiar, less intimidating heroic types (Hook, 1957, Fishwick, 1985).

The increasing influence of mass media in American society in the late 20th century further changed the dynamic of the American hero. Theorists of the 1960s and 1970s described a new type of figure, the celebrity, which had become prominent in American society (Boorstin, 1961; Klapp, 1962; Lubin, 1968; Bowra, 1969, Monaco, 1978; Fishwick, 1979; Browne, 1983; Rollin, 1983; Hoagland, 1974, Harris, 1994). The celebrity, first described by Boorstin (1961), does not gain fame through greatness or

accomplishment but instead due to mass exposure and visibility Boorstin provided the following description of the American celebrity as

> a person who is known for his well-knownness His qualities -- or lack of qualities -- illustrate our particular problems He is neither good nor bad, great nor petty He is the human pseudo-event He has been fabricated on purpose to satisfy our exaggerated expectations of human greatness (1961 pp 57-58)

Unlike heroes, celebrities do not display a model of greatness They are a product of the media as much as they are a product of their accomplishments Celebrities do not consistently display excellence, and they exhibit ordinary behaviors and accomplishments (Klapp, 1962, Kelly, 1993, Monaco, 1978).

Therefore, many theorists of the 1960s and 1970s believed largely due to America's increased reliance on mass media and television that the celebrity had replaced the hero in American society, and the heroic figure no longer existed in America (Schlesinger 1968 Monaco, 1978 Hoagland, 1974 Kelly, 1993 Harris, 1994, 'How to', 1995) This cynical view blamed television for initiating the extinction of the heroic figure. This viewpoint also expressed a static view of the hero Accordingly, this heroic figure did evolve over time and was eventually replaced by the celebrity However, many theorists of the 1980s and 1990s have refuted these arguments writing instead about the ongoing evolution of the hero into what can be called the modern American hero (Fishwick, 1979, Fishwick, 1983, Fishwick, 1985 Browne, 1983 Walden, 1986, Harris, 1994). These authors argued that heroes have not disappeared, but instead heroic qualities have changed with the growing influence of mass media In particular because mass media have made heroes more available to the public, Americans are given a larger number of heroic choices and these heroes cannot maintain the longevity of heroes of past generations

Mass media exposure has become a critical component of modern heroic stature, and therefore the modern hero does share characteristics with the less substantial

celebrity. Rollin (1983) clarified the influence of mass media on the modern hero writing, "Publicizing the heroic act and celebrating the performer therefore are crucial. All heroes then are celebrities, no hero is not a celebrity" (p. 14). Unlike the traditional hero, the modern hero must receive publicity by mass media in order to gain heroic consideration. Publicity is crucial in acceptance as a modern hero regardless of the characteristics of the individual. However, unlike the celebrity figure, publicity in itself is not enough to create the modern hero, and thus figure must also exhibit certain heroic qualities. This dissertation takes the perspective of these modern theorists asserting that American heroes still do exist and that mass media have sped the evolutionary process of these heroic figures.

While the modern American hero can take several different forms, theorists have attempted to define some parameters of this modern heroic figure. These include attractiveness, winning, style, risk-taking behavior, individualism, and skill in a particular field (Browne, 1983; Rollin, 1983; Fishwick, 1985; Crepeau, 1985; Harris, 1994; "How to", 1995). Americans have become less likely to require moral greatness from their heroes than was required by previous generations. Additionally, due to an increasingly fragmented American society and an increasing number of heroic choices available through television, Americans of today are less likely than Americans of former generations to unite behind one particular hero (Walden, 1986; Fishwick, 1983; Rollin, 1983; Crepeau, 1985).

This research deals with one specific type of hero, the sports hero, and thus is the focus of the following section.

The Sports Hero

Sports has become a popular and vital area in which Americans now find their heroes, and this trend has grown through the 20th century ("Heroes of", 1990; Ryan, 1995; Nixon, 1984; Oriard, 1982; Simons, 1997; "Role models", 1989). One potential reason for this is that sports remains one area where true greatness and superior beauty

still can be found in a complex society (Goodman 1993). Regardless of the negative perceptions Americans may have of politicians, actors and other frequently tarnished public figures, a star athlete, unlike other mass mediated figures, will have rare moments during which they appear to surpass typical mortal limitations through spectacular, seemingly impossible athletic feats. He will appear, if for only that brief period of time, almost "godlike" (Nixon, 1984, Orrard, 1982)

While the sports hero has been part of American culture since well before the turn of the 20th century a fantastic growth and emphasis on the American sports hero occurred beginning in the 1960s with the rapid growth of sports television (McPherson, 1989 Davies, 1994, Harris 1994, Nixon 1984) By the mid 1980s, sports programming accounted for 15 percent of total programming on commercial television, including networks, such as ESPN, devoted solely to sports programming (Harris, 1994b Davies 1994 Nixon 1984, Katz, 1996) This growth in sports media allowed for increased exposure and popularity of the sports hero to the general public In addition to publicizing the modern sports hero, the current focus of the content of sports television has contributed also to the evolution of the American sports hero To increase fan interest and provide more exciting television material, American sports programs are presented to emphasize heroic actions of the individual and individual emotions and personalities of the star athletes (Kinkema & Harris 1992, Coakley 1994, Hargreaves, 1986 Hilliard, 1984 Sabo & Jensen, 1992) This focus on the individual has helped to create a strong and unique relationship between the viewer and the individual star athletes Duncan and Brummett (1987) explained media s ability to create such relationships, writing,

> during sporting events television tends to focus more on the individual than the group thus establishing a kind of intimacy between the audience and the player This intimacy is created by close-ups of particular athletes before, during, and after the competition and shots capturing the athletes' expressions and reactions at critical moments, by the announcers creation of imaginary conversations, but their use of the players first names, and by personal interviews with the athletes or coaches Television, therefore

> turns spectator sports into observance of minutiae, albeit a controlled intimacy within the confines of a 19-inch screen (p. 171)

The individual has become so paramount in televised sports that television ratings often hinge upon whether a star athlete such as basketball star Michael Jordan, plays in a particular contest (Fatsis 1998, Shapiro, 1999, Starr, 1999). Professional basketball (NBA) in particular has employed a marketing strategy of promoting star players ahead of the actual game (Starr, 1999). For the 1997-98 basketball season, NBC's ratings for nationally televised Chicago Bulls games, featuring Michael Jordan, were 75% higher than for the network's other nationally televised NBA contests (Fatsis, 1998). With Jordan's recent retirement from basketball, both league and network executives have openly worried over the potential loss of league popularity and ratings of televised games. Peter Roby, vice president of marketing for Reebok Athletics, asserted that the league would never again reach the status attained through Jordan's star appeal, saying "I don't think the NBA will ever again attain the glory it did with Michael" (Starr, 1999, p. 56).

To combat this potential loss, networks have embraced the opportunity to create and publicize new athletic stars. NBC Sports chairman Dick Ebersol said in reference to the potential for decreased ratings upon Jordan's retirement, "We do have an opportunity to reintroduce a whole new generation of stars" (Shapiro, 1999, p. D5). In other words, the individual star remains the prime emphasis for television sports, and the retirement of one star leads to the creation of other stars. Nike corporation CEO Phil Knight, whose company airs numerous commercials featuring star athletes, has stated that even his television advertising campaigns alone are powerful enough to create popular sports figures. For instance, in reference to then-NBA newcomer Alonzo Mourning, Knight said, "All we'd have to do is take the money we're using to advertise Charles Barkley and Michael Jordan, put it into Alonzo, and a lot more people would be talking about him" (Katz, 1994, p. 253). With the excessive television coverage of sports stars and the media influence on actually creating star appeal of accomplished athletes, the

distinction between sports hero and sports celebrity appears to be a confusing and blurred line. However, this research follows the perspective that mass media, specifically television, are now necessary to publicize sports heroes. Additionally, the fact that sports figures have primarily become mass-mediated figures does not mean all popular athletes must be celebrities instead of heroes, but instead reflects the evolution of the modern sports hero.

Due to the growth of media coverage of sports figures, Americans now know more about popular sports figures than ever before, including both their on-the-field and off the-field activities. As Caughley (1984) wrote, "Even an average fan knows more than a baseball player's name. He also knows his team, uniform number, position, batting average, salary, and something about his appearance, personality, medical history, and off the-field conduct" (p. 32). The popular sports hero has been demystified, and fans now see the imperfections as well as the greatness (Hargreaves, 1986; Harris, 1994a, Hoagland, 1974; Coakley, 1994; McPherson et al., 1989). Such imperfections include wife/girlfriend abuse, drug and alcohol use, sports gambling, fighting, and fathering of illegitimate children (Harris, 1994; Faterno, 1992, Johnson, 1995, Messner & Solomon, 1994, Long, 1991; "Michael Jordan's", 1991; Nack & Munson, 1995; Starr & Samuels, 1997; Wilson & Sparks, 1996; Farhi, 1997, Franks, 1996, Howard, 1995). These imperfections must be considered in addressing the potential influence of popular sports figures, particularly their potential influence as role models for adolescents.

Despite these imperfections, many theorists still believe the modern, mass-mediated sports figure can be a hero, and they have identified several characteristics that are commonly associated with this modern sports hero. These qualities include the following: supreme athleticism on the field or court, high winning percentages and the potential to win important games and championship matches, statistical records and greatness throughout a career, flair and charisma in style of play and personality, and

confidence in one's abilities (Nixon, 1984 Harris 1994a, Harris 1994b, Crepeau, 1985 Goodman, 1993 Smith 1973, Porter 1983 Starr & Samuels 1997) According to surveys of American teenagers, particular sports-related behaviors, such as sportsmanship and fair play, are also important to some sports fans (Harris, 1994a) While not necessarily related to the athletic performance financial success and lucrative commercial endorsement deals are commonly identified qualities of the sports hero, particularly to adolescent boys who aspire to reach similar financial heights through professional athletics (Katz, 1994, "Michael Jordan s", 1991, Weissman, 1993, Wilson & Sparks, 1996 Simons 1997) Finally theorists also have identified several non performance-related characteristics including civic and community involvement, academic accomplishment, strong family ties and avoiding illegal and immoral behaviors as components of the modern heroic qualification (Walden 1986, Smith 1973 Harris, 1994a Harris 1994b Hoagland 1974 Nixon, 1984 Coakley 1994)

While the off the-court actions of the sports star may have some impact on heroic classification, on-the-court excellence has been identified as more instrumental in determining heroic status. Nixon explained this, writing, "Wayward athletes may be excused by fans in their lifestyle off the field as long as they work hard and produce on the field and their behavior on or off the field does not depart too much from conventional standards" (1984 p 174)

This dissertation accepts the perspective that the sports hero is a non-static, evolving construct. Additionally each individual may have his or her own views of the characteristics that are most important in being a sports hero For this research, however, the sports hero will be defined as adhering to the following guidelines

1) The sports hero must be well known Therefore, he must be shown prominently on television. This perspective acknowledges the impact of celebrity on the heroic condition in America

2) The sports hero must display athletic excellence on the field or court This can be displayed through record or notable performances (scoring, defense, etc.) flamboyant or outstanding style of play, or other feats that set an athlete apart from his or her peers on the field or court

3) The sports hero must display the ability to be a winner on the field or court.

4) The sports hero may display the ability to overcome difficult odds against success in sports such as injury, physical limitations or underprivileged family life as a youth. The sports hero may also display extreme perseverance in reaching athletic goals

5) The sports hero may display exemplary behavior on and off the court, although this is less important than exemplary performance on the court. Therefore, it is possible to have a sports hero who is quite flawed from a behavioral perspective, as long as he or she performs well in athletics

6) The sports hero will likely be extremely wealthy through high salaries and sports marketing and endorsement deals

7) While all the previously listed qualities are important in the definition of the sports hero, this research also will accept the idea that each individual may have his or her own priorities as to the most important characteristics of the American sports hero

The two concepts, the role model and the sports hero described in the previous two sections have been synthesized in the following section, which describes the most critical concept for this research project, the sports hero as a role model

The Sports Hero as a Role Model

The popular sports figure is both praised and criticized as a potential role model, although limited research addresses these viewpoints. The function of star athletes as role models is often taken for granted and assumed to be true despite a lack of specific

evidence (Jung 1986) The limited research that has been done on this topic is addressed below

The popular sports figure can serve as a role model in several different areas of adolescent life Some of these roles are positive while others are negative. One identified area of role modeling is style of play and athletic performance Observers may pattern aspects of their athletic participation after the athletic accomplishments of their sports role models (Wilson & Sparks 1996 Keilner, 1996 Simons, 1997 Harris, 1994b) For example, golfers reported a noticeable slowing of play at their local courses when golf tournaments were first televised (Harris, 1994b) This was because amateurs began lining up their putts as the pros did on television despite the fact that many of them had no idea why this was done or the effectiveness of this procedure

Similarly, observers model the athletic moves of NBA basketball stars (Harris 1994 Wilson & Sparks, 1996 Simons, 1997, Nixon 1984 "Michael Jordan's", 1991) Observers may attempt to adopt aspects of their athletic role model's play style, whether it be the flamboyant dribbling style of Julius Erving or the physical play of Karl Malone. The influence of professional athletes often extends from one generation of athlete to the next, as many current stars list former athletic stars as their role models in developing playing styles (Nixon, 1984 Wilson & Sparks 1996)

Non-sports related on-court behaviors also can be modeled by observers. These behaviors can be positive, such as exhibiting grace during defeat or helping players from other teams They can also be negative, including throwing temper tantrums during competition, fighting with other players and officials, and abusing equipment (Weisman, 1993 Wilson & Sparks, 1996 Starr & Samuels 1997, Harris, 1994) Several popular athletes, including Charles Barkley, Joe Namath and Deon Sanders, have become well known for their brash and arrogant behavior, and adolescent observers may copy such behaviors (Harris, 1994b) Athletic role models also can display positive behaviors

during play, and observers can imitate these behaviors as well (Coakley, 1994, "Role models", 1989, Goodman, 1993, Harris, 1994b)

Theorists have suggested that athletes can serve as positive role models when observers imitate positive work behaviors of successful sports heroes. These behaviors include hard work toward reaching a goal, practice, desire to win, and prosocial behaviors such as charitable work and sportsmanship (Kellner, 1996, Wilson & Sparks, 1996, Coakley, 1994, Malone, 1993, Weisman, 1993, 'Michael Jordan's", 1991, Nixon, 1984, "Role models', 1989, Harris, 1994a)

One prominent potential area of role modeling of popular mass-mediated athletes involves clothing style and athletic footwear, including athlete-endorsed shoes costing in excess of $100 per pair. While observers may not be able to perform the athletic feats of their role models, they can wear or hope to wear the clothing endorsed by role models (Weisman, 1993, Katz, 1994, "Michael Jordan s", 1991, Kellner, 1996, Simons, 1997). Mass media advertising campaigns have contributed to the marketing power of the athletic role model, with companies telling the consumer that shoes are a key component to being more like their athletic hero, whether it be Michael Jordan or Bo Jackson (Weisman, 1993, Wilson & Sparks, 1996, Simons, 1997). As Wilson and Sparks (1996) wrote about young African American males and their favorite NBA players, "Many of the Black adolescents gave responses acknowledging the celebrity Black athletes' definitive influence on popular style through athletic apparel and the athletic-apparel commercial. This influence was manifest most often in the respondents' desire to look like the celebrity athlete" (p. 414)

The coinciding occurrence of imitation of athletic play style and choice of athletic shoes points to the influence of the athletic role model. Katz (1994) described this in his chronicle of the Nike corporation, writing

> by 1991 a visitor to any playground in the world could find hefty young Charles Barkleys and towering David Robinsons playing Charles style or Mr (David) Robinson-style in their Air Force shoes Lean and athletic Scottie Pippens flew in Air Flights, little Bo Jacksons pumped iron in thousands of gyms and, by then, miniature Andre Agassis lit up tennis courts in their peacock-colored Nike clothes and shoes (p 148)

Fans could couple their role modeling of athletic behaviors of their sports hero with purchases of equipment of their sports hero certainly an inviting concept to athletic companies marketing such endorsed sports products

Popular athletes also may serve as role models of economic success Professional athletes receive exorbitant salaries, NBA salaries average more than $2 million a season, not including endorsement income (Simons, 1997) Salaries of top athletes far exceed this figure, and such wealth is often accomplished at a very young age. Theorists have suggested that American youths use famous athletes as role models of economic success and mobility (Simoos, 1997 Weisman, 1993 Wilson & Sparks 1996, Kellner, 1996, Harris 1994, "Michael Jordan s" 1991. Nixon, 1984, Starr & Samuels 1997) Therefore such youths may desire to copy this financial success instead of imitating more realistic role models, such as teachers and local business persons Thus occurs despite the fact that only one of every 50,000 high school basketball players actually reaches the NBA (Simons, 1997) In other words an adolescent s chances of ever achieving fame and fortune through professional athletics are quite slim

Additionally, many popular athletes have exhibited negative behaviors, both on and off the-court, that possibly could be role modeled by fans It is this type of role modeling that is most worrisome to critics of the modern sports hero Although certainly not all popular sports stars display such behavioral tendencies, the list of athletes who have done so is long and covers a wide range of sports and teams A few specific examples of such well publicized negative behaviors are described below

Many of these negative behaviors occur during competition, referred to as on-court behaviors These behaviors often involve arguments and confrontations

between players perhaps the most notable of these occurred when boxer Mike Tyson bit Evander Holifield's ear during a title fight These behaviors also include athlete confrontations with fans coaches, and officials ("TKO· Tyson", 1999) For example, in a much publicized case NBA star Latrell Sprewell, then of the Golden State Warriors, attacked his coach, P J Carlisimo twice during a practice session (Starr and Samuels, 1997) In recent years, several players have been suspended in recent from league play for physically attacking a referee These include Nick Van Exel and Dennis Rodman of the NBA, Orlando Brown of the NFL, and Roberto Alomar of Major League Baseball, who spit on an umpire after a disputed strike call (Collins, 1999) Redman also has incurred fines and a suspension for kicking a TV cameraman during a game (Starr and Samuels, 1997)

Star athletes also have had conflicts with fans during games Houston Rockets guard Vernon Maxwell punched a heckling fan in Portland during a 1995 game, costing Maxwell $20,000 and a ten-game suspension (Nance, 1995) Even professional coaches, who themselves have become highly paid popular sports figures have displayed extremely inappropriate behaviors during games NFL coach Mike Ditka made an obscene gesture to home fans during a home New Orleans football game (Collins 1999). Such negative on-court behaviors, including fighting yelling at other players, shoving and arguing with officials, kicking cameramen, and, in the most extreme of cases, even physically harming a coach or fan, have become a somewhat regular occurrence for many popular sports figures (Wilson & Sparks, 1996 Weinman, 1993, Katz, 1994, Harris, 1994, Harris, 1994b, Starr & Samuels, 1997 Smith, 1973, Walden, 1986, Coakley 1994)

Negative off the-court behaviors of popular athletes have become even more troubling than such on-court behaviors, and many of these behaviors have resulted in much more serious consequences. One such example is the case of Ray Carruth, wide receiver for the NFL Carolina Panthers, who was indicted in December 1999 for

conspiring to murder his wife (Brady, 1999). Unlike many other athletes who have committed serious criminal offenses, Carruth did not have a prior record of negative and illegal behaviors. Other athletes, such as Mike Tyson and Dennis Rodman, became well known as regular law breakers. Among other offenses, Tyson has been sentenced to jail twice, once for rape and once for assault, and Rodman has been arrested for sexual assault, domestic abuse, and drug use ("TKO: Tyson", 1999; "Rodman sued", 1999). Although this paper cannot effectively address the many examples of the different varieties of negative off-the-court behaviors, some behaviors of popular athletes that are frequently reported by mass media include wife and girlfriend abuse, drug abuse, alcohol abuse, and assault (Howard, 1995; Taylor, 1991; Star & Samuels, 1997; Donohew, Helm, & Haas, 1989; Paterno, 1994; Messner & Solomon, 1994; Goldberg, 1995). Given the invasive media coverage of the off-the-field behaviors of athletes, these negative behaviors hold serious ramifications for any study of role modeling of popular athletes.

The previous section addressed the sports hero as a potential role model and some specific types of role modeling that could result from the actions of mass-mediated sports figures. This study, however, addresses not only different types of role modeling, but also the motivations for such role modeling and conditions under which role modeling might occur. Specifically, this study examines adolescent self-concept and the proximity of such self-concept to perceived images of sports heroes as a factor in determining a variety of role modeling behaviors of sports heroes. Therefore, the next section addresses self-concept and its relationship with behavior and role modeling.

Self-Concept

Introduction and Definitions

Much of the literature and debate dealing with the choice of sports heroes has focused on the qualities of the sports figure, not the individual qualities of the sports fans. For example, theorists have debated whether the sports hero is determined solely through athlete feats, or whether he must also personify outstanding qualities in his life outside of sports (Harris, 1994 Walden, 1986 Smith, 1973) The limited discussion of the qualities of sports fans typically has focused on group affiliation and characterization of sports fans, including race nationality socio-economic status, and gender and how these general characteristics might influence the choice of a sports hero (Harris, 1994a, Wilson & Sparks, 1996, Lapchick & Stuckey, 1993 Klein, 1991) However these perspectives ignore the fact that selection of a sports hero is an individual choice based on the individual characteristics and needs of each person One potential means of addressing such individual characteristics in a standardized and measurable method is to examine self-concept in relation to the choice of a sports hero

Self-concept is an extension of the term "self" that has been defined as "the individual's attitudes toward self" (Frey & Carlock, 1989, p 2, Secord & Backman, 1964) The self serves as the reference point for each individual's view of the world. From "self," theorists have established self-concept. Self-concept has been defined with several slight variations as explained below

The simplest definition of self-concept is "myself as I see myself" (Loundon & Bitta, 1979, p 373, Dolich, 1969, Landon, 1974, Delozier & Tillman, 1972) This is a summation of the process by which persons evaluate their own selves to form their self-concept Newcomb (1956) elaborated defining self-concept as the individual as perceived by that individual in a socially determined frame of reference. This definition allows for the context of environment to influence the formation of self-concept, and it

also hints at the importance of the external environment in the determination of self-concept

Several researchers have noted the difference between one's individual self-concept and the self as observed by other people In other words, an individual s view of himself or herself may not be the same as how other people view that person. One reason for this is because people do not always behave consistently with their self-concepts One's overt behavior is often linked with one s self-concept, but inconsistencies may exist between the behavioral component of self and one's actual self-concept For example a person might think that he is an excellent student, yet this same person may not study diligently and complete his academic assignments Therefore, his self-concept, or perceptions of himself, would not be consistent with his behaviors This could lead to observers viewing a person differently than that person views himself or herself (Hattie, 1992 Baughman & Walsh 1962) While the self-concept is likely instrumental in determining future behaviors, the self-concept is still a cognitive measure and it measures one s own perception of reality This may be inconsistent both with an objective reality and with the ways in which others perceive someone (Loundon & Bitta, 1979, Frey & Carlock, 1989, Felker 1974) Felker (1974) explained this in his definition of the self-concept, as follows,

> self-concept is the sum total of the view which an individual has of himself Self-concept is a unique set of perceptions ideas, and attitudes which an individual has about himself The view which an individual has about himself is unique and to varying degrees is different from the view that anyone else has about him (p 2)

All the aforementioned definitions of self-concept refer to a single self-construct known as the actual self-concept, or the real self concept (Sirgy, 1983 Dolich, 1969) However the self-concept actually has multiple components The number of measurable components of self-concept has varied greatly among researchers (Sirgy 1983, Hattie, 1992 Loudon & Bitta, 1979 Runyon, 1977) For this research project, two constructs

of self-concept are addressed They are as follows, with the corresponding definitions for the purposes of this research

1) The Real Self An individual s perception of how he actually is (Dolich, 1969, Burdwell 1964 Ross, 1971, Runyon 1977, Lourdon & Bitta, 1979) This refers to the most common self concept, the self-concept which has been described in the previous paragraphs. This construct has also been called the actual self-concept" because it refers to the individual's self-perceptions as he or she actually sees them (Sirgy 1983) For this research, this construct does not take into account a person s perceptions of how others view him or her known as the 'social self-concept' (Sirgy, 1983) Instead, this refers only to the individual s own perceptions of himself or herself

2) The Ideal Self An individual's perception of himself as he would like to be (Delozier & Tillman, 1972 Loundoo & Bitta, 1979, Runyon 1977, Baughman & Welsh, 1962 Ross 1971)

These two components are used as separate measures of self-concept and together make up the construct of "self-concept" for this research

Domains of Self Concept

The construct "self-concept," whether it be real or ideal self-concept, is often regarded as a singular measurement, combining self-perceptions on a variety of different areas together into one construct According to this classification, individual perceptions toward oneself as an athlete would not be differentiated from perceptions toward oneself as an academic In other words, measurements of self-concept would not allow the individual to differentiate between distinct areas of himself or herself Although widely used, this means of assessing self concept is limited and somewhat incomplete (Harter 1982 Runyon 1977) Therefore, this research examines self-concept not as one

measurement, but rather as a measurement of several distinct domains, all of which are part of self-concept

Harter (1982) pointed out distinct problems with using a single measure of self-concept in a critique of Coopersmith s (1967) self-esteem inventory a test of 58 questions which make up one global evaluation of self-worth, and the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale (1969), a similar test of 80 questions used to evaluate overall self-concept. Harter wrote,

> Items on such popular scales as the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory and the Piers-Harris Self Concept Scale tap a range of diverse content including cognitive competencies physical skills popularity, acceptance by parent, morality, personality traits, physical characteristics, and affective reactions Responses to these heterogeneous items are then summed and the total score is interpreted as an index of global self regard In employing such a procedure Coopersmith has assumed that children do not make distinctions among the domains in their lives This assumption was seriously questioned in the scale-construction efforts reported here (1982 p 87)

Early research on self-concept did not break down this construct into specific domains However theorists did find that self concept could differ in varying situations, such as a work environment as opposed to a social or an athletic environment (Leundon & Bitta, 1979; Newcomb. 1956) This was a precursor to the idea that there may actually be several different components of self-concept, and these different components accounted for a different self-concept in the context of different environments Researchers subsequently determined that the general measurement of self-concept consisted of several components including one's perception of one s athletic ability, morality academic accomplishment, and physical appearance (Dolich, 1961, Krech et al 1962 Leundon & Bitta, 1979; Reynolds et al, 1980) Furthermore, these components of self-concept could change with cognitive development and aging (Frey & Carlock, 1989.. Felker, 1974 Hattie.1992, Katona-Sallay, 1993, Harter, 1982 Harter 1988) Similarly, Felker (1974) identified separate categories of self-concept that applied

specifically to adolescents These categories were behavior, anxiety intellectual or school status, happiness and satisfaction (Felker, 1974) Although self-concept was still measured as a single construct, this understanding of the separate components of self concept lead to the eventual measurement of separate domains of self-concept.

Susan Harter (1982) conducted research on the separate domains of self-concept and subsequently created tests to measure these separate domains of self-concept This research provided the foundation for the collection of data on self-concept for this study Harter created the Perceived Competency Scale for Children, a self-concept test measuring four separate subscales of self concept. These subscales are cognitive, social, physical and general self-worth (Harter 1982) Harter later developed the Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents, a similar self-concept measure for adolescents that assesses the following eight domains scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance, job competence, romantic appeal behavioral conduct, and close friendship (Harter 1988) Because this research examines self concept and behaviors of adolescents, these are the domains used as the subscales of self-concept for this research.

The use of domains for research on self-concept and intentions to role model sports heroes is crucial because different domains of self-concept may relate quite differently to role modeling intentions of sports heroes For example, the athletic domain of self-concept may have a vastly different relationship with the decision to role model a sports figure than behavioral conduct or romantic appeal has with such role modeling. Additionally, as discussed earlier, modern sports heroes are diverse figures, and different domains of self-concept may relate in different ways to these different qualities of sports heroes Popular athletes such as NBA stars Charles Barkley and Latrell Sprewell, both whom are excellent athletes but who, on numerous occasions, have participated in illegal and unethical activity can display seemingly contradictory behaviors and characteristics in different areas of their life (Starr & Samuels, 1997 Farrey, 1997, Malone, 1993)

The ability to separate these different aspects of the individual is paramount to this research, and this is why the use of Harter's research on the separate domains of self-concept for adolescents guides this examination of self-concept.

While Harter and others have identified specific domains for self-concept, this does not mean that everyone places equal importance on each of the specific domains. In fact, each individual likely holds different opinions of the importance and salience of the various facets of self concept (Hattie 1992, Harter, 1987, Gergen, 1971). For example, Hattie (1992) pointed out, "A minister is more likely to have a more clearly delineated and richer moral self-concept than an athlete. The athlete may have a clearer physical self-concept" (p. 55). Individuals may deem particular domains important for a variety of reasons including the amount of familiarity or learning with a particular domain, the presence of a need or motivation toward a particular domain of self-concept (ex. peers may give approval to those who are proficient in sports, yet may not give the same approval to high marks in academics), competence in a domain, and particular social situations which may cause particular domains to become increasingly important (ex. frequently attending parties where social interaction is important) (Hattie 1992, Gergen, 1971, Videbeck, 1958). While any of these factors may help dictate which domains are perceived as more important than others for the individual, the importance of any particular domain may be different for each individual. Therefore, because domain importance can vary both by domain and for each individual, it is extremely important to measure self-concept as a function of domains instead of an overall measure. The importance of each domain should also be measured, as is done in this research project. Further explanation of the importance of domain specific self-concept evaluation will be given during the following section of self concept formation and enhancement.

Development and Maintenance of Self-Concept

Self concept is formed through life experiences and interactions. No one is born with a self-concept, but rather it is learned (Felker 1974, Frey & Carlock, 1989,

Baughman & Welsh 1962, Wells & Marwell 1976, Orenstein, 1994, Krech et al , 1962) Self-concept is developed through self-appraisal reflecting upon one s behaviors, reflected appraisal, reflecting upon cues from others, social comparison, comparing oneself to others and biased scanning, seeking out information to confirm one s opinions while filtering out contradictory information (Lounden & Bitta, 1979 Runyon, 1977, Baughman & Welsh, 1962 Krech et al , 1962 Burnstein et al , 1962) One may look to a variety of people and sources in the formation of self-concept These include parents, peers, teachers, siblings, and other persons deemed significant to the individual (Lounden & Bitta 1979, Hattie 1992, Frey & Carlock, 1989, Covington & Beery, 1976 Orenstein, 1994 Baughman & Welsh, 1962, Krech et al , 1962 Felker 1974, Katona-Sallay, 1993)

Although many influences on self concept are personally known acquaintances, mass media figures, and specifically sports heroes can also influence the formation and maintenance of self-concept (French 1991, Katona-Sallay, 1993, Caughley, 1984) A fantasy relationship with a media figure can serve to confirm one's sense of his or her own identity Caughley (1984) wrote in reference to such a perceived relationship between fan and media star, 'Landing such a widely adored celebrity figure confirms your self worth it makes you somebody' (p 50) To create such a mythical relationship, a fan may actually fantasize that the media star chooses the individual over millions of other viewers, picking that person to be a special friend or even a lover or wife. Caughley (1984) explained the allure of these fantasy relationships, explaining that "through fantasy, a media love relationship is exquisitely tuned not to the needs of the celebrity, but to the needs of the self (p 51) The relationships with mass-mediated, celebrity figures can be extremely powerful in shaping personal identity and self-concept

Media fans also can make social comparisons with popular mass media figures, and such comparisons, both negative and positive, can lead to further development of self-concept (Oppenheimer & Oosterwegel 1993) This process is similar to

self-evaluations that can occur with traditional non-mass mediated models (Burnstein et al., 1962). Therefore, personal interaction is not necessary to impact self-concept, and media figures can help to shape the self-concept of a viewer. This may be particularly important to adolescents who, in an effort to establish their own individual identity, often turn from more traditional sources of persons, such as parents, and look toward new sources, such as mass media figures, to define their self-concepts (French, 1991, Katona-Sallay, 1993). Furthermore, most people form their self-concepts during childhood and adolescence, and self-concept becomes more resilient to change during adult years (Krech et al., 1962; Orenstein, 1994; Hattie, 1992; Katona-Sallay, 1993; Frey & Carlock, 1984). Therefore, research into adolescent self-concept formation is crucial, because this represents a period when self concept is still volatile and changing, and is a time when one seeks new sources and people, including media figures, who may help form one's self-concept.

Self-Concept Maintenance

A primary human objective is to maintain and enhance real self-concept, and this goal influences human behaviors and interactions (Hattie, 1992; Runyon, 1977; Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967; Felker, 1974; Frey & Carlock, 1989; Delozier & Tillman, 1972; Surgy, 1983; Wells & Marwell, 1976; Loundon & Bitta, 1979; Orenstein, 1994; Krech et al., 1962). One prominent means of achieving this goal is to bring one's real self-concept, or one's view of oneself, closer to one's ideal self-concept. People's behavioral intentions and choices of friends and role models are often formed in an effort to maintain or improve their real self-concepts. Therefore, people act in such a way as to gain higher opinions of themselves or to preserve the opinion they have of themselves. Such self maintenance and self-improvement occurs because it can result in a higher sense of self-worth (Orenstein, 1994; Harter, 1987; Harter, 1982; Hattie, 1992; Felker, 1974). In other words, improving one's self-concept can be a primary behavioral influence.

However this view of self-concept enhancement is likely a simplification of the process Instead of viewing self-concept as a singular construct, self-concept maintenance and enhancement should be studied in terms of the many distinct domains of self-concept Thus is because each person places a different level of importance on each particular domain or, as described by Hattie (1992), "The saliency of various dimensions of self-concept differs across individuals" (p. 169) Thus difference in saliency among individuals leads to each specific domain contributing differently to one s sense of self worth (Harter 1982) While people likely attempt to maintain and improve real self-concept in all areas people are more likely to do so in their most important domains of self-concept (Harter 1987 Harter 1982 Hattie, 1992, Runyon, 1977) Hattie (1992) explained "An individual s sense of worth may be in a variety of areas the body (beautiful) is of the highest importance to some, but for others it may be more important to be academically able, to have a happy family life to gain respect for each other, or to have a desirable personality" (p 55) Therefore, it is these particular areas for which the individual will have the most interest in maintaining and improving the real self-concept, because these areas/domains will contribute the most to one s sense of value

Self-Concept and Behaviors

The focus area for this research project is the potential link between self-concept and behavior The desire to maintain real self concept and reach towards one's ideal self-concept by behavioral intention has been examined primarily through studies of consumer behavior and product selection While this may differ from the topic researched in this study (role modeling of sports heroes), prior marketing research should help build a foundation of knowledge and guide the research for this study

Two of the earliest examinations of self-concept as a behavioral influence were done by Rogers (1951) and Maslow (1954) Rogers explained that each person will strive to actualize, maintain, and enhance himself or herself and these needs will guide people s actions (Rogers, 1951 Felker, 1974) Maslow (1954) introduced similar ideas in

describing the process of self-actualization, which refers to the process of achieving one's potential. According to this process, people are motivated to behave and act in order to achieve their potential. However, according to Maslow's theory, this need for self-actualization is the last in a long list of human needs. Therefore, self-actualization will be the last factor to impact behavioral decisions. Since Maslow's theory of connecting self-concept and behaviors is deeply embedded within a larger theory of human needs and existence, it is somewhat difficult to isolate this concept within Maslow's work.

Much of the subsequent research relating self-concept to behaviors involved marketing and product selection. According to such research, consumers choose products which are consistent with their own image or self-concept, and this can lead to a variety of purchase decisions. Kretch et al. (1962) explained this relationship by describing how self-concept motivated middle and upper class Europeans to choose a lower quality of bread due to the lofty image of this product.

> the very foods that an individual chooses to eat must not only satisfy his hunger but also be congruent with his conception of himself as a certain kind of person. Thus the less nutritious white bread came to be preferred to the more nutritious dark bread because the dark bread was reminiscent of the European peasant's black bread. The color of the bread had become a status symbol and therefore a determinant of how well it would assuage the status seeker's hunger. (pp. 83-84)

The choice of bread was motivated by congruence between the white bread and self-concept. Because white bread was perceived as a high status product, it probably was indicative of the ideal self-concept of these Europeans. Food was selected not only to satisfy hunger, but also due to its congruence with oneself as a person.

Several studies have found consumers to choose products consistent with their self-concepts (Landon, 1974; Sirgy, 1983; Loundon & Bitta, 1979; Runyon, 1977; Hattie, 1992; Delozier & Tillman, 1972; Birdwell, 1964; Ross, 1971; Felker, 1974; Dolich, 1961; Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967; Krech et al., 1962). Loundon and Bitta (1979)

explained "Products and brands are considered as objects that consumers purchase either to maintain or to enhance their self images The choice of which brand to buy depends on how similar (or consistent) the consumer perceives the brand to be with his or her self image (p 376) This theory has been examined and tested thoroughly, and it helps explain the motivations for certain behaviors and behavioral intentions

Theorists have not definitively established whether real self-concept or ideal self-concept is more instrumental in guiding consumer choices (Lourdon & Bitta, 1979, Hattie, 1992, Delozier & Tillman, 1972 Sirgy, 1983 Runyon, 1977, Landon, 1974 Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967 Ross 1971) It has been suggested that visible products, such as formal clothing or expensive wines, might reflect the ideal self-concept, while privately used products, such as toothpaste and soap might reflect the real self-concept Additionally, researchers have suggested certain products such as a luxury/sports car, are purchased more for status appeal and will be chosen for congruence with the ideal self-concept In contrast, other products such as a station wagon, are purchased for their utility value and will be chosen for congruence with the real self-concept However researchers have yet to establish exactly under which conditions real self-concept is used or when ideal self-concept is used Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) explained,

> further research is needed in terms of specific consumer decision situations to determine to what extent self-enhancement involves a conformity concept or an ideal self image concept For example, are consumers, through their consuming behavior and the interaction process, seeking support for their self-concept as they now perceive themselves, or are they seeking reactions that will promote the attainment of a more ideal self? (p 206)

While both self-concepts have been identified as important in determining consumer behaviors, the specific instances and motivations for particular behaviors is not yet fully understood

The importance of the individual domains, or domain importance of self-concept may also help determine consumer behavior In other words, it is possible that choice of

consumer products also depends upon which domains of self-concept are most important to the individual and how the selected consumer product relates to this particular domain For example, the purchase of a calculator may be more related to academic self-concept, and the selection of athletic shoes may be more related to the physical self-concept. While not specifically addressed in any known research, researchers hinted at this potential relationship when they explained that different types of people (ex housewives, tennis players, aspiring executives) may seek different types of consumer products (ex linens white shorts, leather brief cases) in reference to their individual self-concepts (Hattie 1992, Grubb & Grathwohl 1967, Loundon & Bitta, 1979) Therefore, the areas of self-concept that are most important to the individual will guide the selection of consumer products. The selection of a brief case may not correlate at all to the self-concept of a housewife because the related domains (professional accomplishment, etc) may be unimportant to this individual Because this area of study is largely unstudied domain importance and its correlation with behaviors is further examined in this research project

Self-Concept and Mass Media Figures

Little research has addressed the selection and adoption of behaviors of mass media figures with respect to self-concept or other related constructs Caughley (1984) addressed the perceived relationship between a viewer and an admired media figure writing, "The appeal is often complex but the admired figure is typically felt to have qualities that the person senses in himself but desires to develop further The admired figure represents an ideal self image" (p 54) In other words, the observer chooses a media figure who represents an ideal self-concept, particularly in areas that are important to the observer Accordingly, domain importance is a crucial factor in the relationship between media heroes and fans. Through this complex relationship, the fan can attempt to develop the most appealing characteristics of his or her favorite celebrity figure, allowing the fan to strive towards the most valued areas of his or her ideal self-concept

Even less is known about the relationship between the sports hero and the observer in reference to the fan's individual self concept. Tener's (1987) dissertation work found that the hero choices of an adolescent can be used to predict self-concept, suggesting a consistency between the hero and the observer. However, this work did not deal with the real and ideal self-concepts but rather just the strength of an adolescent's real self-concept. Additionally, this research focused on the importance of choosing a personally known vs. an unknown hero, and it did not address the different characteristics of chosen heroes.

While not addressing the specific construct of self-concept, several authors have suggested that fans may choose and role model their favorite sports figures based on their perceived similarities between themselves and the athlete (Wilson & Sparks, 1996; Cote, 1996; Keilner, 1996; Harris, 1994a; Simons, 1997; "Role models", 1989). The work in this area has not addressed the individual's perception of himself or self-concept, but rather studied observable characteristics of the individual, including race, playing style and gender. Therefore, one primary goal of this research is to examine modeling of sports heroes in relation to individual self-concept, not general group characteristics or qualities.

Adolescent Self-Concept

This study deals specifically with self-concept of adolescents. Adolescence represents the beginning of drastic change to one's self-concept, marked by an increased awareness of self-concept (Orenstein, 1994; Harter, 1988; Frey & Carlock, 1989; Hattie, 1992). Felker (1974) explained, "During adolescence, there is an increased drive for change in the individual. The increased change and corresponding lack of stability brings with it a need for reorganization of the self-concept" (p. 104). Such reorganization has been labeled a "crisis of identity," a process of drastic change and instability in self-concept during adolescence (Hattie, 1992, p. 132; Erikson, 1950).

Frey and Carlock (1989) described adolescence as a movement from a period of dependency to a period marked by increasing separateness and independence. They wrote, "The movement away from dependency during adolescence is characterized by such questions as 'Who am I?' 'How do I want to be?'" (p. 285). Additionally, adolescents typically become aware of a variety of expectations and standards, including standards for academics, social standing, and athletic competence, against which the self can be measured (Hattie, 1992, Frey and Carlock, 1989, Orenstein, 1994). Therefore, this ongoing process of measurement creates a greater interest in and awareness of one's own perceived competence and ability.

However, most authors have acknowledged that while adolescence marks a period of change for the self-concept, it is generally a gradual, less rebellious period during which adolescents "make the bid for autonomy gradually and these requests meet reasonable consideration and deference from parents who ally themselves with the child's need to grow" (Douvan & Gold, 1969, p. 485, Hattie, 1992, Wylie, 1961). In other words, parents and children typically engage in a give-and-take as adolescents attempt to form their own identity. It is reasoned that adolescents often shift from using family as their primary reference and instead rely more on peers, teachers, and mass media to establish their own identity (Hattie, 1992, Felker, 1974, Katona Sallay, 1993, Pekrun, 1993, Frey & Carlock, 1974). This can create an instability in self-concept that is only increased by the ongoing physical changes throughout adolescence (Orenstein, 1994, Frey & Carlock, 1974, Felker, 1974).

A study by McGuire and McGuire (1981) examined the types of people adolescents named when asked to describe themselves in relative terms. Compared to younger children, adolescents were more likely to shift from parents to teachers and from siblings to friends when defining themselves. In other words, adolescents were more likely to seek external sources to define themselves during this period of self-concept awareness and development. Research done by Pekrun (1993) indicated that while the

self concepts of adolescents are still influenced by family support, adolescents also look to other sources, particularly teachers to formulate self-concept. Pekrun further added that different sources may impact different areas or domains of self-concept. Pekrun wrote "School factors have an impact on domain-specific school related self-concept development Furthermore, it may be that peers exert primarily influences on the development of domain-specific self-concepts of social competencies" (1993, p 118) This research not only indicates the variety of influences on adolescent self-concept, but also stresses the importance of using separate domains of self-concept for the study of adolescent self-concept

Adolescents also may begin to look toward mass media figures and popular figures in reference to their own self-concept (Orenstein, 1994, Frey and Carlock 1989 Harhe, 1992) Unfortunately, despite the prevalence of media figures in the lives of adolescents, relatively little research addresses the influence of such figures on adolescent self-concept Adams-Price and Green (1990) found that a crush on or an attachment to a celebrity figure is an important aspect in self concept development during adolescence. This process of development often occurs during solitary use of media, allowing an adolescent to discover his or her new sense of self (Reed 1995) Such solitary involvement with media reflects the increased awareness and individuality of self-concept expected during adolescence

The majority of the recent literature on television and development of self-concept has focused on adolescent girls and their perceptions of their bodies Due to the prevalence of thin attractive females in mass media, adolescent female media users often develop lower self-concepts of their own physical appearance, seeing themselves as overweight and unattractive in comparison to these media figures (Schneider, 1996, Rodin, 1992 Harrison 1998, Tiggemann and Pickering, 1996, Goode 1999, Botta, 1999 Becker and Popenoe, 1998) These images also have caused many female adolescent viewers to develop much higher, and likely unachievable ideal self-concepts

for their physical appearance (Smith, 1985, Becker and Popenoe, 1998, Goode, 1999, Harrison, 1998) According to dissertation work by Harrison (1998) viewing of television with conspicuously thin characters resulted in higher body dissatisfaction, while viewing of television with overweight characters did not have the same effect on physical self-concept. Similarly Becker and Popenoe (1998) found that the recent introduction of television and its images of attractive, thin lead characters to a remote South Pacific island led to a decrease in individual self-image of the female adolescent viewers Additionally, these adolescent viewers described shifts in their ideal body image from that of a robust, rounded body, typical of the adults of the island, to that of a thin body, typical of the televised figures The changed image resulting from watching media figures has lead to changed behaviors of adolescent females, most notably eating disorders (Goode, 1999, Becker and Popenoe, 1998, Schneider, 1996, Harrison, 1998 Smith, 1985) In one study, 15 percent of surveyed teenage girls admitted to dieting or exercising to look more like an image seen on television (Schneider 1996) While these studies have focused primarily on adolescent females and the physical component of self-concept, they do show examples of adolescents developing their self-concept based on television figures Furthermore, some of these studies detailed behaviors resulting from such social comparison to media images This behavioral component of mass media social comparison is a focal point of this study, and these studies therefore provide sound foundation for the theoretical base of this research

The following section describes congruity theory a theory predicting the relationships between self-concept congruity and behavior Congruity theory builds on the previously reviewed literature and is the theoretical foundation for the research in this study

Congruity Theory

The reviewed literature has established a link between self-concept and behaviors. In order to logically establish hypotheses for such a link in this research, a theoretical framework must be established. For this research, congruity theory provides such a framework.

Congruity theory, proposed by Sirgy (1980), thus far has been used only in reference to self-concept and consumer behaviors. However, for this research, the framework of congruity theory has been extended to study self-concept and role modeling of sports heroes. According to congruity theory, individuals assign images to consumer products, much like they assign self-concepts to themselves. Congruity, or congruence refers to the relationship between one's self image and the image one assigns to a consumer product. Specifically, congruity increases as the distance between self-concept and product image decreases. Conversely, an increase in this distance results in less congruity. This distance is also referred to as a "distance score." (Distance scores have an inverse relationship with congruity. Therefore, as congruity increases, the distance score decreases.) According to congruity theory, the subsequent intention to purchase a product is based on the congruity between one's self-concept and one's individually assigned product image.

Sirgy (1982) has identified two conditions that predict one's intention to use a product. The first involves real (actual) self-concept and product image congruity. Sirgy wrote, (1982), "The relationship between actual self-image/product-image congruity (self-congruity) and brand preference has been supported by numerous studies" (p. 165). According to Sirgy (1982), as the two images become more similar, or more congruous (lower distance score), the resulting affect will be cognitive consistency, which will lead to subsequent purchase of that product. Conversely, a growing distance between these two images, or decreasing congruity (higher distance score), will lead to cognitive

dissonance (consistency affect) which will likely result in the individual avoiding such consumer products

Numerous marketing studies have supported this relationship These include studies by Dolich (1969) Delozier and Tillman (1972), Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) and Ross (1971) In each of these studies, researchers found that the real self-concept was more closely matched to the most preferred brands and less closely matched to the least preferred brands These studies support the first component of Sirgy s (1982) congruity theory

The second condition involving self-concept and brand image as a predictor for purchase intention deals with the ideal self-concept Sirgy (1982) wrote, "The relationship between ideal self/image/product-image congruity (ideal congruity) has been generally supported Ideal congruity will lead to positive product evaluation, whereas ideal incongruity may be responsible for negative product evaluation" (p 167) In other words, a higher congruity between ideal self-concept and an individual's image of a product will lead to a greater likelihood of purchase intentions (The distance between ideal self-concept and the image of a product is also called an "ideal distance score " As congruity increases, or as the ideal self-concept is closer to the image of a product, the ideal distance score decreases)

While theorists have supported this aspect of congruity theory, not as many studies have addressed ideal self-concept as have addressed real self-concept Dolich (1969) concluded that both real self-image and ideal self-image are predictive of brand preference, and purchase intentions for some products tend to be more closely related to real self/image, while purchase intentions for other products tend to be more closely related to ideal self/image (Dolich, 1969 Ross, 1971, Loundon & Batta, 1979) Loundon and Batta (1979) provided a general assessment of the relationships for both real and ideal self-concept predicted by congruity theory, writing, "The consumer behavior of an individual will be directed towards the furthering and enhancing of his self-concept

through the consumption of goods as symbols' (p 377) In other words, people will use products both to maintain self-concept, further establishing the real self and to enhance self-concept, moving closer toward the ideal self Therefore, both the real and ideal self-concepts are useful as predictors of consumer behavior, and both should be considered in the design of academic research

Application of Theoretical Model to this Study

Congruity theory has significantly added to the understanding of human behavior and the importance of self-concept in determining behavior According to congruity theory, self concept has an impact upon consumer behaviors Consumers use objects that are congruent in image with either their real self-concept, their real ideal self-concept or both self-concepts as this will satisfy the inherent need to either maintain or improve self-concept Congruity theory, therefore, explains the relationship between self-concept and some behaviors.

However while theorists have indicated that self-concept has a major influence upon many human behaviors, including the choice of friends and effort placed into academic work little (if any) research exists outside of the study of consumer behaviors (Hattie, 1992, Orenstein, 1994). Because marketing studies have been successful in identifying behavioral intentions, academics should attempt to apply congruity theory and the study of self-concept to other important areas of behavioral influence. This is the emphasis of this research project It is hoped that the application of sound theory to the study of important societal behaviors, in this case role modeling of sports heroes will be a valuable addition to the academic community and will further the understanding of the impact of sports heroes on American adolescents.

Prior research studies have been used to provide the framework for this research However, because subsequent studies examined consumer behaviors, and this research project examines role modeling of sports heroes, obvious alterations have been made Most obviously the behavioral component of prior studies, purchasing consumer

products, has been replaced with role modeling behaviors of the sports hero Popular, mass-mediated sports figures have become so entrenched with marketing products and mass-media promotions, often for products named after them, it is not such a extension to view sports figures as products themselves (Katz, 1994, "Michael Jordan's , 1991)

Perhaps the most important justification for this study design is the lack of scientific research in the area of self-concept and role modeling. Few studies of role modeling have examined the influence of self-concept. Because congruity theory provides a sound research framework, a somewhat liberal alteration of marketing studies using this theory provides the most logical approach for this dissertation

Self-Concept Domains as Part of Research Design

Prior studies (Dolich, 1969, Ross, 1971) of congruity theory have used matching questionnaires to measure the individual self-concept both real and ideal and the product image From these matched surveys researchers searched for statistical congruity between the answers from the two surveys. In other words, distance scores between self-concept and product image were calculated Researchers in these studies then used different questionnaires to measure the behavioral component, purchase intention To test congruity theory, distance scores (or congruity between self-concept and product image) were compared to intentions to buy the product According to congruity theory as distance scores decrease (higher congruity), purchase intentions should increase

This dissertation follows a similar design However, in this study questionnaires for real self-concept, ideal self-concept, and image of the sports hero address eight distinct domains of self-concept (as outlined in Harter s [1985] Self Perception Profile for Adolescents) Instead of looking at a single measure of congruity between self-concept (real and ideal) and the image of the behavioral object (sports hero), this study examines each of these relationships across the eight distinct domains of self-concept As addressed earlier the eight domains of self concept from Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents are scholastic competence, social acceptance,

athletic competence, physical appearance, job competence, romantic appeal, behavioral conduct, and close friendship

This use of domains in this research allows for more specific results As suggested previously, fans of a sports hero may attempt to copy certain aspects of the athlete's behavior or personality and not other aspects (Simons, 1997, "Role models", 1989) Therefore, addressing role modeling across the eight separate domains further clarifies the particular areas in which the role model will be copied. For example, an individual may role model his sports hero much more in the domain of athletic competence than physical appearance The congruence between one's self-concept and the image of the sports hero should be analyzed across those particular domains instead of using a more general, overall measure This provides a more accurate and useful analysis of the importance of congruity in role modeling sports heroes.

Additionally as addressed in the literature review certain domains of self-concept may be more important to an individual than other domains (ex physical appearance may be more important than job competence to an individual) The literature review has suggested that individuals will copy role models in areas that are most important to them Therefore this research measures the importance of each domain to see if increasing domain importance leads to increased role modeling of one's sports hero

Hypotheses

The review of prior research has lead to the formation of four hypotheses, all four of which are listed and explained in this section These four hypotheses address the research questions presented at the end of Chapter 1 and are examined through the collection of survey data. The description of this analysis is outlined in Chapter 3, the Methods section

> Hypothesis I. For each domain of self-concept, role modeling of the sports hero will be positively related to the congruity between real self concept and the image of the sports hero

The reader is reminded of the positive relationship theorized through congruity theory as the distance (difference) between self-concept and the image of the sports hero decreases, congruity increases For this study distance scores for each domain of self-concept are calculated and these distance scores reflect the distance between self-concept and the image of the sports hero in each domain of self-concept. As a distance score increases, congruity between self-concept and image of a sports hero decreases As a distance score decreases congruity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero increases Therefore, a positive relationship between role modeling and the congruity of self-concept/image of the sports hero would be realized through a negative relationship between role modeling and distance scores H1 deals specifically with real distance scores or the distance between real self-concept and the image of the sports hero This hypothesis, along with the other three hypotheses, will be written to reflect the negative relationship with distance scores and role modeling described above, as this negative relationship and not the inverse positive relationship with congruity and role modeling, will be the focal point of the ensuing statistical analysis This is reflected in the following restatement of H1

> Hypothesis I. For each domain of self-concept, role modeling of the sports hero will be negatively related to the distance between real self-concept and the image of the sports hero, also know as the real distance scores

The second hypothesis also addresses the relationship between role modeling and the distance between self-concept and the image of the sports hero However, H2 deals specifically with ideal self-concept, and the distances between ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero These distances, calculated for each domain of self-concept, are

know as the ideal distance scores Similar to H1, a positive relationship between role modeling and the congruity of ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero is predicted. This is reflected in a predicted negative relationship between role modeling and ideal distance scores, as stated in H2

> Hypothesis II. For each domain of self-concept, role modeling of the sports hero will be negatively related to the distance between ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero also know as the ideal distance scores.

Hypotheses III and IV build upon H1 and H2 by incorporating domain importance into the independent variables (distance scores), creating new dependent variables known as distance worth scores. Distance worth incorporates both the distance between self-concept and the image of the sports hero (distance score) in a domain of self-concept and the importance of that domain of self-concept Therefore this new variable is created by combining two other variables. A detailed explanation of distance worth scores and a description of the calculation of distance worth scores can be found in the proceeding Methods section. A brief description of this construct follows below

For this study, distance worth scores are created by incorporating the importance of a domain (domain importance score) with the distance between self-concept and the image of the sports hero (distance score) Distance worth scores reflect the distance score for a domain of self-concept multiplied by the importance of thet domain However, domain importance scores have an inverse relationship with distance worth scores. In other words, distance scores are actually divided by domain importance scores to create distance worth scores. Therefore the lower the domain importance score is for a domain (domain deemed unimportant) the greater the distance worth score will be. Higher domain importance scores (domains deemed important) will result in smaller distance worth scores In other words, the less important a domain of self-concept is the more the distance worth score for that domain will increase. Domain importance serves to further

qualify the relationship between distance scores, or the congruity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero, and role modeling. By creating distance worth scores through the incorporation of domain importance and distance scores, it is predicted that the less important a domain of self-concept is to an individual, the less likely that the congruity between self-concept and the image of a sports hero in that domain will have a significant impact upon role modeling that sports hero. As a domain becomes more important to the individual, increased congruity (decreasing distance scores) for that domain will be more likely to have a positive relationship with role modeling of a sports hero. Hypotheses III deals specifically with real distance worth scores, a set of variables that incorporate real distance scores in each domain and domain importance scores for the corresponding domain.

> Hypothesis III. For each domain of self-concept, role modeling of the sports hero will be negatively related to real distance worth.

The fourth hypothesis also addresses the relationship between role modeling and distance worth scores. However, H4 deals specifically with ideal distance worth, which is created in the same manner as real distance worth, except that ideal distance scores, not real distance scores, are divided by domain importance scores for each corresponding domain. As with H3, a negative relationship between role modeling and ideal distance worth is predicted. This predicted relationship is reflected in Hypothesis IV, as listed below.

> Hypothesis IV. For each domain of self-concept, role modeling of the sports hero will be negatively related to ideal distance worth.

The following chapter, Methods, addresses the specific methods and statistical analysis used in this dissertation.

CHAPTER 3
METHODS

The methods chapter covers the following topics crucial to the collection of data and testing of stated hypotheses: the subjects for this study; the measures administered for self-concept and the image of the sports hero, creation of the role modeling questionnaire; pretesting the measures used in this study, the collection of data (the administration of questionnaires), statistical analysis of collected data, addressing each of the stated hypotheses, and potential limitations of this analysis. Validity and reliability are discussed throughout this chapter as necessary.

Subjects for Study

This dissertation was designed to analyze the adolescent self-concept; the relationship between this self-concept and perceptions of sports heroes, and the subsequent likelihood of adolescents role modeling the behaviors of sports heroes. Therefore, all subjects were high school students in grades nine and ten, approximately aged 14-16. Additionally, this dissertation only examined the behavioral intentions of male adolescents, so no females were included in the pool of subjects. There are three reasons for this restriction. First, such a research design prevents gender from being a confounding variable in data analysis. Second, researchers have suggested that male adolescents are more likely to look to mass media figures, including athletic heroes, as role models than are their female counterparts, who are more inclined than males to continue to view parents and personal acquaintances as role models (McElvoy & Erikson,

1981) Third, as the vast majority of popular mass media sports figures are male, adolescent males have many more available sports hero choices of the same gender Because perceived similarity has been suggested as a potential factor for role modeling, adolescent males may be more likely to find role models in sports heroes than female adolescents Such an approach is consistent with research in the area of sports heroes as role models where researchers have suggested that popular sports figures such as NBA basketball players, are more likely to serve as role models for male adolescents ("Role models", 1989, Wilson & Sparks, 1996, Simons, 1997)

The particular subjects for this dissertation consisted of ninth-grade and tenth-grade males from Houston, Texas. Of the 172 valid subjects used for data analysis in this study 120 subjects were students in a suburban private school All of those 120 students were participants in school athletics The decision to use only student-athletes was made due to the increased likelihood that student-athletes have strong ties and potential perceived similarities between themselves and their sports heroes

The decision to use adolescents from this particular school as subjects was largely a pragmatic one First and foremost the principal of the high school willingly agreed to allow his students to participate in this study Second, because the school is private, the researcher was able to avoid much of the difficulty involved with using subjects from the public school system Finally, because all students are male, the research process could avoid the perception of being exclusionary to female students in a coed school, as the female students would not be able to participate as male students did

The students from this school were predominantly white, with a small percentage of minorities (Asian, Hispanic, African-American) Most students live in stable upper-middle-class family environments Because the student body is not as large as that of many public schools in the greater Houston area, a relatively large percentage of students participate in school athletics, and such participation is encouraged and

promoted by school faculty and leadership Therefore, athletics, at least in the participatory sense, is a part of the daily lives of many of this school's students

The remaining 52 subjects were participants in a sports tournament in Houston run through a local community center These subjects, of the same grade and age parameters as the first 120 subjects also were participants in school athletics. The majority of these subjects participated in baseball but other selected sports included soccer, basketball, and track These subjects share similar demographics traits with the first 120 students surveyed (white, upper middle-class, supportive family environment), and in fact the data collected from the two groups were virtually identical Again this group of subjects was selected largely for pragmatic reasons (availability, access age appropriateness) Using two groups of subjects and receiving similar results helped to strengthen the validity of this research Therefore the data analysis for this study and the subsequent analyses of the stated hypotheses were based on the responses of 172 valid subjects While more than 200 subjects participated in the study, surveys from approximately 30 subjects could not be used due to subject error in completing the surveys The majority of these errors involved subjects not completing all parts of the survey questionnaires.

One criticism of this study may be that the students do not represent a diverse sample, decreasing external validity Similarly, because most of these students come from stable family environments with many available role models, these students may not use sports heroes as role models as much as adolescents who do not have many other available role models However, this study will not claim to be generalizable to all populations, nor is it able to address issues of race socioeconomic status, and family/home environment Additionally, because this study addresses each person's individual self-concept and allows each person to identify his individual choice of sports hero the focus of this research is not on societal patterns, but rather individual choices based on individual relationships between self-concept and the image of their sports hero

In other words, this research is designed to enable better understanding of how self-concept affects individual choices to role model a sports hero, not the impact of external sources on role modeling, and therefore demographic factors (race, family, etc), while important in the study of role modeling sports heroes, are not paramount to this research

Tests and Test Administration

The following sections detail the survey instruments used for data collection in this study This includes the selection of existing instruments, the alterations of such instruments, and the construction of new instruments

Self-Concept and Image of the Sports Hero

For the measurement of real and ideal self-concept across all domains, the Adolescent Self-Perception Profile, created by Susan Harter (1988), was used This test, an upward extension of Harter s Self-Perception Profile for Children (1982) measures self-concept in eight specific domains that are most important and relevant to adolescents. Harter's rationale behind using such a domain specific format, as opposed to a singular score of self-concept, is as follows "An instrument providing separate measures of perceived competence or adequacy in different domains would provide a richer and more differentiated picture than those instruments providing only a single score" (Harter, 1988, p 2) This test was designed for students in approximately grades nine through twelve.

The test measures self-concept in eight specific domains Each domain is described below as reported in Harter's manual for this test (1988)

1) Scholastic Competence. The adolescent s perception of his/her competence in scholastic performance, achievement in classwork, perception of one's intelligence

2) Social Acceptance The degree to which one is accepted by peers, popularity, number of friends, feels that he/she is easy to like

3) Athletic Competence Adolescent s perceptions of his/her athletic ability, feelings that one is good at sports.

4) Physical Appearance Degree to which the adolescent is happy with how he/she looks, likes one s body, feels he/she is good looking.

5) Job Competence Extent to which the adolescent feels he/she has job skills, prepared to succeed at part time jobs, feels he/she is doing well at current jobs

6) Romantic Appeal Adolescent s perceptions that he/she is romantically attractive to those in whom he/she is interested, dating people he/she wants to date, feels he/she is fun and interesting on e date

7) Behavioral Conduct The degree to which an adolescent likes the way he/she behaves, does the right thing, acts in appropriate manner and avoids trouble

8) Close Friendship Adolescent's perceptions of his/her ability to make close friends to share personal thoughts and secrets with

These eight domains make up the test of self-concept.

Five questions address each domain of self-concept (40 questions overall) The original test has 45 questions because it includes a ninth scale that measures overall self-concept This ninth scale was not used in this study, so these questions were eliminated Each question is rated on a 1 to 4 scale, and approximately half of all questions for each domain are counter balanced such that some have the most adequate description on the left (scored 4 to 1) and some have the most adequate description on the right (scored 1 to 4) (Please see Appendix A and Appendix B for actual tests used.)

The reliability of Harter's test of self-concept has been determined through repeated use and examination of this instrument. Reliability refers to the reproducibility of a measure (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). Of primary importance in this study particularly for the tests of self-concept, is internal consistency reliability. Internal consistency reliability is relevant when several observations are made to obtain a score for each subject (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). Internal consistency reliability is high when several items measuring the same thing (in this case, each of the eight domains of self-concept) correlate highly with each other. Several questions (5) are asked for each domain of self-concept, and therefore an internal consistency reliability score, reported as Cronbach's Alpha, is reported for each. Harris (1988) reported the subscale internal consistency reliability for each subscale, as based on Cronbach's Alpha. They are as follows (for each domain):

1) Scholastic: .81
2) Athletic: .92
3) Acceptance: .78
4) Close Friend: .83
5) Romance: .80
6) Appearance: .86
7) Conduct: .78
8) Job Competence: .74

The high correlation of the items of each domain indicates a high internal consistency reliability (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). Additionally, Harter's (1988) pretests reported mean scores for each domain ranging from 2.5 to 3.3, depending on the sex and age of the subjects. The standard deviations for each domain ranged from approximately .41 to .8, again depending on the subjects.

Multiple Use/Administration of Harter s Self-Concept Test

As explained in the literature review, five separate measurements were made for this research (real self-concept ideal self-concept image of sports hero domain importance, and behavioral intention to role model one's sports hero) All but the last two constructs, domain importance and behaviors were measured using Harter's (1988) test of self-concept, but slight variations of the test were made for measurement purposes In other words, Harter's test was altered so that the same questions addressing the real self-concept would instead address either the ideal self-concept or the perceived image of the participant s sports hero Such a procedure for altering an existing test in this manner is derived from the previously reviewed marketing studies that examine self-concept, product image, and purchase intentions (Dolich 1969 Delozier & Tillman 1972 Grubb & Grathwohl 1967 Ross, 1971 Landon, 1974) In these studies the same (or extremely similar) tests of self-concept were used to measure the real self-concept, the ideal self-concept and the perceived image of the brand/product For example Dolich (1969) used the same semantic differential scale to measure all three constructs, as explained "The semantic differential was used to measure evaluations by respondents of real-self image ideal-self image, and brand images It is described as a combination of controlled association and scaling procedures and satisfies the requirement of measuring several concepts with the same instrument" (p 81) While these examples use such a scale to rate a brand image as opposed to the image of a sports hero, the process is quite similar and represents a logical and sound research design

In order to use such a design, Harter's (1988) test was administered three times (See Appendix A and Appendix B for actual test alterations) The first administration measured the real self-concept This was done with the original format of the questionnaire (subtitled 'What I Am Like") (Harter 1988) The second administration measured the ideal self-concept. In measuring this, references to self (me) were changed to the ideal self (How I Would Like to Be) The third administration measured the

perceived image of the sports hero In measuring this references to self (me) were changed to each subject's individual choice of mass mediated sports hero

For each of the three variations of this test used in this research, the scaling, question order, and wording of the survey questions were identical The only difference was that the first administration addressed the real self, the second administration addressed the ideal self and the third administration addressed the sports hero

Measurement of Domain Importance

In order to measure domain importance this study used Harter s (1988) test of domain importance (subtitled 'How Important Are Each of These Things to You?"), as included in Harter s adolescent self-perception profile (See Appendix A and Appendix B for actual test) This questionnaire follows a similar format to the test of self-concept, with a rating scale of 1 to 4, with half of the questions keyed in reverse This test contains 16 questions, 2 questions for each of the 8 domains. Data collected with this questionnaire were used for the creation of distance worth scores for analysis in Hypothesis III and Hypothesis IV

Measurement of Role Modeling

The final questionnaire measured the adolescent's intention to role model his sports hero In many of the questions, behavioral intentions were used instead of behavioral measures, as discussed earlier in the literature review Such a process of measurement also has been copied from marketing studies, which often measure purchase intentions instead of actual purchase behaviors For example in a study of real self-concept, ideal self-concept, and consumer purchase intentions, Landon (1974) measured purchase intentions with a five-point scale, with the fifth (most extreme answer) representing an intention never to purchase the product (See Appendix C for actual questionnaire for role modeling one's sports hero) This same structure has been used in this dissertation for the measurement of role modeling one's sports hero A

five-point scale, with one (1) representing a strong negative response and five (5) representing a strong positive response, was used to measure behavioral intentions.

Two processes were used in creating the actual questionnaire to measure role modeling of one's sports hero. First, specific potential types of role modeling were identified through literature review and examination of popular sports media (magazines, television, newspapers, etc.). Included in this examination was the purchase of many types of athletic goods and commercial products associated with popular sports figures, particularly those geared toward adolescent males. Second, the researcher asked several adolescent males to identify role modeling behaviors typical of themselves and their peer group. Both a focus group of seven teenage males and open-ended written surveys (sent to approximately ten adolescent males) were used to identify aspects of role modeling that would be relevant for this study. From the areas of role modeling one's sports hero identified through these procedures, a Likert scale survey instrument was formulated. This instrument included the examples of role modeling most frequently identified by adolescents and relevant literature. The instrument consisted of 23 Likert scale questions, 22 of which addressed specific behaviors of role modeling a sports hero and one overall role modeling question, used primarily to examine the validity of the questionnaire.

Pretesting of Questionnaires

The instrument for role modeling and the other previously described measurement instruments (self-concept, image of sports hero) were further examined through pretesting. This pretest was conducted to allow for possible adjustments to the survey instruments before the actual test administration for this study. The pretest was conducted with 20 eighth-grade males from a private junior high school in Houston, Texas. These students completed all components of this study, just as was to be done in the actual research. This particular pretest population was chosen due to its similarity to the actual population that would be examined in this study.

Students completed all questionnaires in the same order and manner as would be done for the actual study. Upon completion, students were given the opportunity to provide both written and oral critiques of the survey instruments. Two issues were of particular interest in pretesting these instruments. The first issue dealt with the age appropriateness of the language used in the questionnaires. In other words, did the pretest subjects fully understand the wording of each question, and was this wording appropriate for this age and demographic group? The second issue addressed whether all relevant areas of adolescent role modeling had been included in the questionnaire of role modeling. In addition to addressing these questions, the pretest allowed the researcher to practice survey administration and to observe the amount of time required by subjects to finish all questionnaires.

While no major adjustments were necessary based on the pretest, minor alterations were made to the wording of a few questions about role modeling. All of the role modeling questions can be found in Appendix C.

Test Administration

Five tests (two tests of self-concept, a test of domain importance, a test of the image of the sports hero, and a test of role modeling of one's sports hero) were administered to each subject. Tests were administered in either school classrooms or gymnasiums. The total testing time, including instructions and time for questions, lasted approximately one hour. Each student completed all five tests in one session. Tests were administered to small groups of approximately 10-20 students for each session, and the researcher was present at all testing sessions, along with either a teacher or coach. After giving instructions about how the questionnaires should be completed and showing a brief example, the researcher provided an instruction packet for students instructions beyond those provided verbally by the researcher. The researcher was available to answer questions during the entire testing period. No incentives were given to subjects for participation in the study.

After the instructional session, subjects were instructed to pick the one athlete they most considered to be their sports hero As discussed in the literature review, while each subject was allowed to choose his own sports hero individual choices were required to meet the following two criteria the athlete must be, or must have been, covered heavily by mass media (particularly television), and the athlete could not be a personal acquaintance of the subject This allowed for a wide range of hero choices but kept the focus of this study on mass mediated figures as potential role models, as opposed to personal acquaintances such as family friends, and coaches as role models Subjects then were told that their selected sports hero would be the basis for all subsequent questions concerning sports heroes for the study (image, role modeling) In other words, subjects were instructed to use their individual choice of sports hero as replacement for the generic "sports hero" of the questionnaires

After choosing a sports hero, subjects completed the tests for real self-concept ideal self-concept and image of the sports hero at the same time. Having subjects complete the three similar tests together was done so students would consider their real self in juxtaposition to their ideal self and the image of their sports hero In other words, the real self-concept was meant to be used as an "anchor" or "standard" by which the ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero would be considered

These three tests were given using one questionnaire and one answer packet, in which students would place their answers for each question of real self-concept next to the counterpart answers for the same question on each of the other two constructs (ideal self sport hero) For example, subjects would place their answer for Question 1 for their real self (who I am) followed by their answer for Question 1 for their ideal self (who I want to be), followed by their answer for Question 1 for the image of their sports hero (what my sports hero is like) After completing all three components of Question 1, students moved to Question 2 and followed the same procedure. This allowed for subjects to examine and contemplate their answers for real self in relation to ideal self

and the image of their sports hero. The sequence of test administration was identical for all subjects

Because the same order was used to answer each question (real self answered first, then ideal self, and finally image of the hero), it is possible that this order affected the way in which each question was answered In other words, contemplating the real self-concept first for each question might have impacted the scores given for the ideal self-concept and, subsequently the image of the sports hero The completed questionnaires were examined to ensure that such order effect did not occur In particular, irregular answer patterns were looked for, such as a series of ascending answers for each question The literature review has suggested that the image of the sports hero likely would fall between the real self-concept and the ideal self-concept, so inappropriate variations from this pattern would suggest potential order effect However, upon review of the completed questionnaires, order does appear to have impacted the answers given for each question

Conducting all three similar tests during the same testing period should have eliminated the slight possibility of "history" as a confounding variable (Graziano & Raulin, 1993) If a week were to transpire between the administration of these three tests, it is possible, although unlikely that an experience could alter the real or ideal self-concept of an individual or an individual's image of his sports hero, and this would impact the ensuing analysis based on these three constructs.

Following the tests of self-concept and image of the sports hero subjects answered the 16 questions addressing domain importance These were answered on the same question guide as the self-concept/image questions and, upon completion, the entire answer page and question guide were given to the test administrator

Subjects then were given the role modeling instrument Before answering the 23 Likert scale questions on role modeling, students again wrote the name of their chosen sports hero at the top of the questionnaire and were reminded to focus answers on their

particular choice of sports hero This test took much less time to complete than the previous tests of self-concept/hero image, and subjects were finished with their participation in the study when they completed and turned in this questionnaire

The process of analyzing role modeling through survey questionnaires posed an obvious threat to the internal validity of this study specifically that subjects may have been inclined to give socially desirable responses for such questions as the behavioral intentions to role model their sports hero In other words, subjects may not have been willing to admit or even be fully aware that they would model such behaviors (ex style of dress, dating behaviors, etc) However, these threats to validity were reduced by allowing subjects to choose their own personal sports hero (as opposed to forcing any particular hero on all students) and by reminding students no question had either a correct or incorrect answer Additionally, by using Likert scale questions for subject response (similar to the marketing studies that provide the framework for this research), this threat to internal validity was reduced as subjects were allowed to consider such behaviors in degrees instead of merely being offered a "yes" or "no" option

Because of the length of the testing session and the large number of questions presented in the questionnaires, subject fatigue was a potential confounding variable for this study Specifically, there was concern that subjects might not carefully consider answers given in the latter parts of the study questionnaires To help reduce this risk, subjects were only given one of the two questionnaires at a time, which made the survey process less overwhelming for participants Subjects first were given only the self-concept/image of the sports hero questionnaire After completing and turning in this questionnaire, subjects were allowed to take a brief break before taking the role modeling questionnaire, which was the less time consuming of the two survey instruments Additionally, completed surveys were examined by the researcher to look for signs of subject fatigue as represented by irregular or inconsistent answer patterns in the latter

parts of the questionnaires. Upon review of the completed questionnaires, subject fatigue does not appear to have impacted the answers given for this study

Upon completion of all questionnaires the collected data for all 172 valid subjects were input into SPSS for statistical analysis The procedures for data analysis are discussed in a later section of this chapter

Issues of Validity for this Study

The following section addresses several types of validity threats to validity and confounding variables, the relevance of different types of validity to this study and the means by which this study attempted to maximize validity

While several different types of validity and organizations of these concepts have been outlined by various theorists (Graziano & Raulin, 1993), the most frequently described types of validity and those most relevant to this study are listed and outlined below

1) Content Validity 'Content validity refers to the extent to which a measure thoroughly and appropriately assesses the skills or characteristics it is intended to measure" (Fink 1991, p. 50) Content validity is maximized by assuring that the measurements used in the study actually address the constructs in question For this particular study the constructs include self-concept and role modeling of sports heroes. Content validity is often maximized by adequately defining the variables in question and by using questionnaires that address the construct in question (Fink, 1991). This study has maximized content validity by using valid instruments designed to assess the particular constructs in question For the questionnaire to measure role modeling, content validity was increased by

fully defining role modeling and by the use of adolescent focus groups, who provided information as to which aspects of the behavior of adolescents and role modeling were most appropriate to include

2) Face Validity: Face validity refers to the surface characteristics of a measure, and, unlike content validity, does not rely on established theory (Fink, 1991). Face validity is increased by asking all appropriate questions and using language that is appropriate for the subject population. The face validity for this study was increased by pretesting questionnaires on adolescents similar to those in the study population and asking for appropriate feedback on the language of the questionnaires and whether any aspect of role modeling behaviors had been omitted.

3) Statistical Validity: Statistical validity refers to whether one's results are due to a systematic factor (the independent variable) or merely to chance variations (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). This is particularly important in experimental research with a manipulation of the independent variable. Statistical validity has been increased for this study by using reliable measures, such as Harter's test of self-concept. Violation of the assumptions of a statistical test can decrease statistical validity. Because regression analysis was a primary statistical test used in this research violations of the following assumptions could have decreased statistical validity: normal distribution, a linear relationship between dependent and independent variables, an assumption of homoscedasticity, and assumptions that measurements of Y values are independent of each other (Licht, 1996, Kleinbaum & Kupper 1978). Statistical validity was increased by examining a scatter plot of responses before statistical analysis to assure that statistical procedures such as the potential use of cross products to account for interaction effects was not required.

4) Concurrent Validity Concurrent validity is maximized when a new measurement tool compares favorably with an existing measurement tool that is already considered valid (Fink 1991) Concurrent validity increases with high correlation between the new survey instrument and the existing measurement tool For this research, the survey instruments used to assess self-concept and the image of the sports hero are adaptations of Harter's self-concept test, and therefore new tests have not been created to replace existing, more valid measures For the created measurement tool of role modeling intentions- no known existing measurement tool was found. Therefore, correlation between this new tool and an existing tool cannot be calculated, and concurrent validity could not be established for this measure

5) Construct Validity "Construct validity refers to how well the study s results support the theory or constructs behind the research and asks whether the theory supported by the findings provides the best available theoretical explanation of the results" (Graziano & Raulin, 1993, p 171). Therefore, a focal component is to eliminate rival hypotheses and other theoretical explanations for the research results. Threats to construct validity are reduced by clearly stating definitions and building hypotheses on well validated constructs (Graziano & Raulin, 1993) For this study, threats to construct validity have been reduced through building the hypotheses on a sound theoretical foundation (congruity theory) that has been used successfully in marketing research Construct validity also refers to the ability of a survey to distinguish between persons who have certain characteristics and those who do not (Fink, 1991). One means of establishing construct validity of a survey instrument is to check for discriminant validity with another measure. In other words, construct

validity is increased by insuring that one measurement tool does not correlate highly with another measurement tool that is used to measure a different, dissimilar construct. For this study, content validity has been established by checking that real self-concept and ideal self-concept do not have a high correlation (discriminant validity). A statistical comparison of the collected data for real self-concept and ideal self-concept can be found in the results section of this dissertation.

6) External Validity. External validity, often know as generalizability, refers to the extent to which the results of a study can be generalized to different populations and conditions (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). Threats to external validity are reduced through careful selection of participants including random sampling and attempting to choose a representative sample. However, for this study, subjects were not randomly selected. Instead, this study used convenience samples, and therefore results must be generalized very tentatively, likely only to those who have characteristics similar to those in the study. It is more likely that the results cannot truly be generalized at all to other populations (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). However, it should be noted that this study examined relationships between individual self-concepts, one's individual choice of a sports hero, and one's individual intentions to role model. Therefore, while this study cannot be truly generalized to the adolescent male population at-large, the results present relationships that can be studied and researched in other, broader adolescent populations.

7) Internal Validity. Internal validity deals primarily with causality, particularly whether the independent variable is actually responsible for the observed changes in the dependent variable (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). For this study, most of the threats to internal validity (maturation

of the subjects, attrition, instrumentation etc.) did not affect this study. It is possible that the sequence of the administration of exams could potentially affect the answers given on the questionnaires. This is often controlled by using more than one order of administration of questionnaires (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). However, for this research, it was important that subjects used the questionnaire of real self-concept to anchor the other tests, and therefore one order of administration, with the real self-concept questionnaire completed first, was used.

5) Subject and Experimenter Effects. Subject effects can threaten the validity of a study when subjects give socially desirable answers or unintentionally (or intentionally) try to satisfy the demands of the researcher through their answers (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). For this research, it is possible that participants might report higher or lower levels of behavioral intentions to model a sports hero depending on what they deem more socially desirable. Additionally, they may name a sports hero who may not actually be their sports hero, but rather a person they feel would be a more socially desirable sports hero. These threats to validity have been reduced by assuring participants that there are no correct or incorrect answers and by limiting the questions of role modeling to those that were more likely to be answered honestly. Therefore, questions concerning anti-social behaviors such as domestic abuse and recreational drug use were not included. Experimenter effects could occur in this study if the experimenter tried to influence the answers of the subjects (Graziano & Raulin, 1993). This was reduced by having teachers administer the actual surveys and by closely monitoring the procedure. Because there are no observational data (as in experimental research), the threats to validity from experimenter effects are minimal in this study.

Data Analysis

This section reviews the data analysis for this study and the statistical analysis of the four hypotheses of this study. All valid collected data were input into SPSS for analysis. The topics to be discussed include the following: role modeling statistics, self-concept and calculation of distance scores, and analysis of stated hypotheses. All results of this data analysis and further explanations are found in the following "Results" chapter.

Role Modeling Data

In order to further utilize the results of the role modeling questionnaire as the dependent variables for this study, reduction of the role modeling data was necessary. To accomplish this, a factor analysis of the 22 individual role modeling behavior variables (not including the general overall role modeling variable) was conducted. Factor analysis, which identifies patterns among the variations in the values of large groups of variables, is effective in identifying patterns of interrelationships among these variables and, subsequently, reducing this large number of variables into a smaller number of variables known as factors (Agresti & Finlay, 1986; Rummel, 1970; Vogt, 1993).

Several rotations of this factor analysis were conducted to find the best fit for the role modeling variables used in this factor analysis. Rotations are typically done to identify factors that are more clearly named and distinct in their identity (*SPSS*, 1999; Vogt, 1993). In other words, by rotating this factor analysis, more distinct and specific areas of role modeling were identified as factors. For the variables of role modeling for this study, a varimax rotation was used, and four significant factors of role modeling were identified. A significant factor was defined as having an eigenvalue greater than one (1) and at least three variables with significant factor loadings on that factor.

For each of the significant factors of the factor analysis, an index was created. An index is a group of individual measures that, when combined, represent a more general

characteristic (Vogt, 1993). For this study each of the significant factors was used to create an index of role modeling behaviors. Indexes were created instead of merely using the factors as the more general variables of role modeling because factors place different weights on each variable in the factor and include components of other variables that are not strongly related to the targeted role modeling behavior of that particular factor. Each index however only includes the chosen variables that specifically relate to the core role modeling behavior of the more general index.

An index was created for each factor by summing and then averaging across each subject's responses on the variables shown to load significantly on that factor. Significant variables were identified as those with a factor loading greater than .4 on that factor only. This was done for two reasons. First, this factor loading (.4) represented a high level of correlation between the variables within an index. Second, upon examination of the significant factors this value served as a logical break point for the selection of variables to each index. An overall index also was created from all variables that were included in each of the four indexes. Finally, two variables not included in any of the role modeling indexes (getting a tattoo or earring like a sports hero or taking Andro like a sports hero) were used in the test of the stated hypotheses. While these two variables did have a significant factor loading (greater than .4) on factors with eigenvalues greater than one (1), both of these factors had fewer than three significant variables and therefore were not used to create indexes.

These seven variables (four role modeling indexes, one overall role modeling index, and two independent role modeling variables) were the dependent variables for role modeling used in the four hypotheses of this study.

Self Concept and Image of the Sports Hero

Data for real self-concept were collected using Harter's *Self Perception Profile for Adolescents* (1988). The data for the ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero were collected using the altered forms of Harter's test, as described earlier in this

chapter For each of these three constructs, a mean score was calculated in each of the eight domains of self-concept. Each of these 24 domains had five questions Before a mean score could be calculated, the results of all questions asked in a negative direction had to be inverted such that the results from each question ranged from lowest rating of self-concept/image of sports hero (1) to highest rating (4). (See the Appendix for questionnaires and directions for individual questions.)

It should be noted that while these mean scores for both self-concept and the image of the sports hero were reported in the results for informative purposes, these mean scores were not used in the calculation of the distance scores between self-concept and the image of the sports hero Instead distance scores were calculated from the individual questions, not the mean scores, to provide a more accurate determination of the specific distances between the constructs. An explanation of this calculation follows in the next section

Distance Scores

Distance scores are a measure of the distance between two concepts, and they can be used to measure the similarity between two such concepts (Osgood et al., 1957) For this study, distance scores were calculated to measure the distance between self-concept, both real and ideal, and the image of the sports hero In other words, these distance scores indicate the similarity between self-concept (real and ideal) and the image of the sports hero These two separate sets of distance scores, real distance and ideal distance have been calculated for each of the eight domains This resulted in 16 distance scores (8 real 8 ideal) for use in this study

Several equations can be used to calculate distance scores For this study, the difference squared model which squares the difference between each paired set of questions and sums these differences, has been used (Singy 1983, Osgood et al., 1957) The difference squared model assured a positive value for the distance between each set of values, regardless of which value, the self-concept or the image of the sports hero is

greater This formula for calculating distance scores between the image of the sports hero and either the real or the ideal self-concept in any of the eight domains can be represented as follows.

$$\text{Distance (in each domain)} = (Q1, Sp\ Hero - Q1, SC)^2 + (Q2\ Sp\ hero - Q2\ SC)^2 + (Q3\ Sp\ hero - Q3, SC)^2 + (Q4\ Sp\ hero - Q4, SC)^2 + (Q5\ Sp\ hero - Q5\ SC)^2$$

Qn, Sp Hero = Question n from the test of the image of the sports hero

Qn, SC = Question n from the test of self-concept.

This same formula was used in each domain for real distance and ideal distance. The sum of squared differences for each question was used instead of the summed difference of the overall construct scores as this provides a more accurate account of the descriptions between the sports hero image and the respective self-concept scores In other words, this formula assures that differences on specific paired questions from each domain were not lost or ignored when combined for an overall score for that domain (Osgood et al , 1957) The lower the distance score for each domain, the closer the particular domain of self-concept is to the image of the sports hero in that domain. Lower distance scores indicate closer proximity between self-concept and sports hero image and a higher level of congruity between the two constructs The higher the distance score, the less congruity that exists between self-concept and the image of the sports hero

These distance scores were used as the independent variables for H1 and H2 of this study

Hypothesis I and Hypothesis II

H1 and H2, which predict a negative relationship between role modeling and distance scores were statistically examined with multiple regression analysis. Multiple

regression is useful for the following types of analysis important to the testing of H1 and H2

1) Multiple regression analysis can "characterize the relationship between the dependent and independent variables in the sense of determining the extent, direction, and strength of the association among these variables" (Licht, 1995, p. 34)

2) Multiple regression analysis can determine which of several variables are important for predicting a dependent variable and which of these variables are unimportant in predicting this dependent variable (Licht, 1995, Weisberg et al., 1989, Kleinbaum & Kupper, 1978)

3) Multiple regression analysis can determine the best model for describing the relationships between various predictor variables and a dependent variable (Licht, 1995 Weisberg et al 1989 Kleinbaum & Kupper, 1978 Vogt, 1993)

For this study, regression analysis was used to determine the relationships between the predictor variables (independent variables), distance scores, and the dependent variable role modeling. The dependent and predictor variables were assumed to have a linear relationship and an examination of the pretest data and actual data from this study confirmed this relationship. Therefore, linear regression analysis was used in this study

Although regression does not necessarily imply causality, regression can give a better understanding of the nature of a phenomenon by identifying factors with which it co-occurs (Licht, 1995, Weisberg et al 1989). In other words, while this regression analysis cannot necessarily determine whether congruence between self-concept and the sports hero causes role modeling of a sports hero, regression can determine whether

congruence co-occurs with such role modeling, providing a better understanding of role modeling of sports heroes and the possible conditions under which it is likely to occur

For each of the seven role modeling variables (four indexes one overall index, and two role modeling variables) three regression analyses were completed The first set of analyses used all eight real distance scores as the independent/predictor variables. The second set of analyses used all eight ideal distance scores as independent/predictor variables The third set of analyses used all 16 distances scores (real and ideal) as independent/predictor variables One particular function of regression is to determine the best model for describing a relationship between a dependent variable and independent variables (Licht, 1995) Therefore, this third set of regression analyses was done in attempt to create a more predictive regression equation for each of the role modeling indexes and variables than may be found in the regression analyses using only real distance scores or only ideal distance scores, and to account for a larger percentage of the variance of each of these dependent variables (in other words, to increase the amount of variance explained for each role modeling index or variable) The exclusion of important predictor variables can drastically affect the results of regression analysis so it was hoped that including all the distance scores (real and ideal) would increase the prospect of achieving statistically significant results (Licht, 1995) Finally, placing all 16 distance scores in one regression allows for a simple comparison of the impact of all distance scores by examining the standardized beta weights of each of these 16 dependent variables (Kleinbaum & Kupper 1978, Licht, 1995) One common function of regression analysis is to better understand which predictor variables are more important than others, and this set of regression analyses has enabled that understanding

However, theorists do warn of using an excessively large number of predictor variables in a regression analysis and, in fact, one potential goal of regression analysis is to find the best and most predictive model while minimizing the number of predictor variables (Kleinbaum & Kupper, 1978 Licht, 1995, Weisberg et al 1989, Fink, 1995).

This therefore presents the challenge of minimizing the number of predictor variables while still recognizing the importance of including important potential predictor variables even those which do not make significant partial contributions to the dependent variable, as suggested by the theoretical framework of the study (Agresti & Finlay, 1986) For this study while theory requires all distance scores to be included as potential predictor variables, even those that do not significantly contribute to role modeling, practice indicates that such a process will weaken the stability of these regression analyses

This inclusive set of regression analyses, using all 16 distance scores as predictor variables, does create difficulties in accurate assessment of the relationships between role modeling and distance scores. First, using all 16 distance scores does not tell the variance (R^2) of role modeling accounted for by either the real distance scores or the ideal distance scores independently, but rather gives the variance from all distance scores. Therefore these regressions do not indicate whether real distance scores or ideal distance scores independently serve as significant predictors of role modeling behaviors Because that question is a focus of this study, particularly in attempting to better understand congruity theory and the differing impact of real vs ideal distance scores these inclusive regression analyses do not fully answer all key questions raised in this study

Additionally using all 16 distance scores increases the possibility for multicollinearity among these independent variables. Multicollinearity refers to the intercorrelation between the independent/predictor variables in a regression analysis (Licht, 1995, Kleinbaum & Kupper, 1978 Wensberg et al , 1989). As multicollinearity increases, regression analyses becomes less stable, and it becomes more difficult to assess the statistical significance of individual predictor variables when such variables are highly intercorrelated with other predictor variables in the regression For this study, high correlation could exist between several of the ideal and real distance scores particularly between the two scores from the same domain Such correlation would result

in high multicollinearity making the regression analyses with all 16 distance scores as predictor variables less stable than analyses using fewer predictor variables

For these reasons, the regression analyses using only the eight real distance scores (or only the eight ideal distance scores) as predictor variables are more crucial to the study of the first hypothesis. These less complex analyses likely give a more accurate and stable assessment of the impact of distance scores on role modeling behaviors. The seven regressions using all 16 distance scores serve to supplement this assessment and add information for further discussion

Therefore, 21 separate regression analyses were completed to test H1 and H2. A stepwise regression procedure was used for these analyses. Stepwise regression, unlike forward selection and backward elimination regressions, finds the best fit for a regression equation by entering the predictor variables in a variety of orders (Licht, 1995; Vogt, 1993; *SPSS* 1999). This type of regression drops predictor variables from a regression model if they lose their significance when other variables are added to the regression equation, and this makes stepwise regression the most effective method when correlation among the independent variables is strong (Agresti & Finlay, 1986; Weisberg et al., 1989; *SPSS* 1999). Given the potential for strong correlation (or multicollinearity) between the distance scores used as the predictor variables for H1 and H2, the stepwise method was the logical choice for the regression analyses for this study.

The F value of each regression model was examined, and only those regressions with a p less than .05 were deemed to support H1 or H2. As several regressions addressed each of the two hypotheses, an insignificant regression equation does not reject either H1 or H2, but rather indicates that a particular role modeling behavior does not have a significant relationship with the distance scores (real or ideal) used in that particular regression equation. For either H1 or H2 to be fully rejected, none of the regressions for either of the two hypotheses could be significant. By using several regression analyses for each hypothesis, this study identifies which of the particular role

modeling behaviors have significant relationships with distance scores, and which of the role modeling behaviors do not have such significant relationships. The regressions with significant F statistics indicate which indexes/variables of role modeling support H1 and H2

For each of the significant regressions, the t statistic, the significance of this statistic and the Beta statistic for each of the individual predictor/independent variables (distance scores) were examined. These statistics clarified which of the distance scores had significant relationships with specific role modeling indexes/variables and the relative strength of these relationships To determine significance of each of the predictor variables, the test statistic (t) was used For any predictor variable to be deemed to have a significant relationship with a role modeling index/variable the p value of the test statistic must be less than 05 (p less than 05) The beta weights (B), or standardized regression coefficients of each significant relationship were examined to explain the strength of the relationship between individual distance scores and role modeling indexes/variables This statistic not only explained the extent to which any of the individual distance scores related to role modeling, but it also explained which of the distance scores had the strongest relative relationships with role modeling.

An examination of the results of the 21 completed regression analyses provide an explanation of H1 and H2 and selective support (or lack of support) for these hypotheses, which predict significant relationships between role modeling and distance scores.

Domain Importance and Distance Worth Scores

Domain importance for each of the eight domains of self-concept was calculated from Harter s test of domain importance as part the *Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents* (1988) (See Appendix A for the actual test questions) Two questions addressed each of the eight domains of self-concept, and a mean score was calculated for each domain Domain importance was measured on a scale from one (1) (least important) to four (4) (most important) These domain importance scores were used, along with the

calculated distance scores used for H1 and H2 to create distance worth scores These scores were used as the predictor/independent variables for H3 and H4 Before the calculation of this new variable can adequately be described, it is necessary to explain fully the proposed relationship between domain importance scores and role modeling of a sports hero

As a domain of self-concept becomes more important (domain importance scores increase) one should be more likely to role model behaviors of one's hero, particularly in behaviors that are related to that domain of self concept Additionally, higher domain importance should increase the likelihood that one considers the congruity between one s self-concept and the image of one's sports hero in influencing role modeling Therefore, it is predicted that as domain importance scores increase role modeling of the sports hero also will increase In other words, domain importance and role modeling should be positively correlated

The following examples illustrate this predicted relationship Two hypothetical persons Frank and Mark, are used for illustration purposes in these examples Frank and Mark each has his own individual sports hero Frank places high importance on his athletic self-concept Therefore, his domain importance score for the athletic self-concept is high (for this example, Frank 's domain importance score is four) Mark places less importance on his athletic self-concept (domain importance score is two) According to the predicted relationship for this research, Frank should be more likely to role model his sports hero than Mark especially for behaviors that are related to the athletic self-concept Additionally Frank s self-concept congruity with his sports hero in the athletic domain should be more likely to influence his decision to role model his hero Therefore, as domain importance scores increase, role modeling also should increase

For ease of further analysis and to make distance worth scores smaller and more easily read, the domain importance scores were reduced by dividing the scores from each domain by four (4) The new, reduced domain importance scores ranged from .25 (least

important) to one (1) (most important) In other words, a domain importance score of "1" became a score of "25", while a score of '4 ' became a score of 1' These reduced scores represent the same values and ratios as the original scores, and this data alteration did not change the nature of this construct nor the relative value of domain importance from one domain to any of the other seven domains. These reduced distance scores (eight real eight ideal) were used in the creation of the 16 distance worth scores used as independent variables for H3 and H4

Distance worth scores incorporate both the distance scores used as the independent variables for H1 and H2 and domain importance scores Therefore, this variable represents both (a) the congruity between individual self-concept and the image of a sports hero in a domain and (b) the importance of that domain to an individual However, the statistical calculation of this new variable requires specific data alterations due to the nature of distance scores and domain importance scores. As predicted for this research, distance scores should have a negative correlation with role modeling This is because increased congruity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero in a domain results in decreased distance scores for that domain. Conversely, it has been predicted that domain importance scores have a positive relationship with role modeling. Therefore, to create distance worth scores it is necessary to make statistical alterations to one of the two variables such that they both have a relationship with role modeling in the same direction In other words because distance worth has been created as a variable which combines congruity and domain importance to predict role modeling the relationships of congruity (represented by distance scores) and domain importance with the dependent variable role modeling must be in the same direction for the creation of this new variable

The creation of distance worth scores requires distance scores to be multiplied by domain importance scores. However, to satisfy the above conditions, domain importance scores (the reduced domain importance scores have been used) have been inverted before

being multiplied. For this calculation (see formula below), each of the distance scores was multiplied by the inverse of the reduced domain importance score for that particular domain. In other words, distance scores were actually divided by domain importance scores to create distance worth scores. This was done 16 times, resulting in eight real distance worth scores and eight ideal distance worth scores. (Each reduced domain importance score was used two times -- once for the real distance worth score for that domain, and once for the ideal distance score). These 16 distance worth scores (eight real, eight ideal) were used as the predictor/independent variables for H3 and H4. To calculate distance worth scores, the following formula was used:

Distance Worth = Distance Score x (1 / Reduced Domain Importance Score)

According to this formula, higher distance scores result in higher distance worth scores, while lower distance scores result in lower distance worth scores. In this respect, distance worth scores are identical to distance scores in their proposed correlation with role modeling behaviors. Conversely, due to the inversion of domain importance scores, higher domain importance scores result in lower distance worth scores, while lower domain importance scores result in higher distance worth scores. As a domain is rated more important (domain importance score increases), the distance worth score for that domain will decrease for both real and ideal distance worth. Therefore, this formula has allowed for the negative correlation between role modeling and distance scores and the positive correlation between role modeling and domain importance scores to be represented in one variable (distance worth).

Due to the reduction and subsequent inversion of domain importance scores, virtually all distance worth scores will be greater than their corresponding distance scores. The greater the domain importance score, the less the distance worth score will increase from its corresponding distance score. The lower the domain importance score

(less importance for a domain), the more the distance worth scores will increase from the distance score Therefore, higher domain importance scores result in lower relative distance worth scores. In other words, if two distance scores are equal but the domain importance scores for that domain are different, the lower relative distance worth score will be the one with the higher domain importance score.

The following hypothetical examples of the creation of two distance worth scores further explain this concept.

Example of the Creation of Distance Worth Scores

In Example A, Frank and John are two hypothetical subjects. Both subjects have identical real distance scores in the athletic domain (distance score = 5) In other words, both Frank and John have the same congruity between their real athletic self-concept and their athletic image of their individual sports hero However, Frank has a higher domain importance score than John for the athletic domain Frank's domain importance score is three (3) while John s domain importance score is two (2) In other words, Frank places greater value on the athletic domain of self-concept than John does Using the equation presented in the previous section, distance worth scores have been calculated for the two hypothetical subjects, and these scores are represented in the following table

Table 3-1 Example A of the Calculation of Distance Worth Scores

Subject	Real Athletic Distance Score	Athletic Domain Importance Score	Reduced Domain Importance Score	Real Athletic Dist Worth Score
Frank	5	3	0 75	6.67
John	5	2	0.5	10

In this example, while both subjects had identical distance scores, the subject who placed greater importance on the athletic domain (Frank) had a lower relative distance worth score for the athletic domain. John placed less value on this domain and had a lower domain importance score, so his resulting distance worth score was higher

Because H3 and H4 predict that distance worth scores will have a negative correlation with role modeling, this research predicts that Frank would role model his sports hero more than John who had equal congruity yet a lower domain importance score Therefore, distance worth scores incorporate both the importance of a domain and the congruity of that domain in an effort to more accurately predict and assess role modeling of the sports hero It should be noted that, as explained in the previous section, both Frank's and John s distance worth scores are greater than their corresponding distance scores This is due to the fact that domain importance scores are reduced before being inverted in the process of calculation However, this numerical increase from distance scores to distance worth scores does not affect the statistical analysis of the hypotheses for this research Instead, it is the relative value between distance worth scores, not the relative value between distance worth scores and corresponding distance scores, that guides the analyses of H3 and H4

In Example B real distance worth scores are again calculated for Frank and John, this time for the social domain In this example, the subjects have identical domain importance scores for the social domain (domain importance score = 3) but Frank has a lower real social distance score (distance score = 4) than John (distance score = 7) In other words, while both subjects place equal importance on the social domain, Frank has greater real self-concept congruity with the image of his sports hero in this domain than does John The following table details the creation of distance worth scores for this scenario

Table 3-2 Example B of the Calculation of Distance Worth Scores

Subject	Real Social Distance Score	Social Domain Importance Score	Reduced Domain Importance Score	Real Social Dist Worth Score
Frank	4	3	0 75	5 33
John	7	3	0 75	9 33

Although the domain importance scores are identical, the differences in the distance scores result in differences in the calculated distance worth scores Again, both distance worth scores are greater than their corresponding distance scores. While Example A showed how differences in domain importance lead to differences in distance worth scores, this example shows how distance worth scores also reflect differences in subjects' distance scores, or congruity with one's sports hero

This calculation of distance worth scores has allowed for two concepts, (a) the distance between self-concept and the image of the sports hero in a domain and (b) the importance of that domain to be statistically represented in one variable. This variable, distance worth (for both real and ideal self-concept), has a predicted negative relationship with role modeling, and this was examined through statistical analysis of hypothesis III and hypothesis IV

Hypothesis III and Hypothesis IV

H3 and H4, which predict a negative relationship between role modeling and distance worth scores, were statistically examined with multiple regression analysis This process of analysis was identical to that used to test H1 and H2, except that the distance scores used for H1 and H2 were replaced with distance worth scores. Twenty-one separate regression analyses were completed Three regression analyses were done for each of the seven role modeling indexes/variables. For each of the dependent variables, the first regression analysis used the eight real distance worth scores as independent/predictor variables, the second analysis used the eight ideal distance worth scores as independent/predictor variables, and the third analysis used all 16 real and ideal distance worth scores as independent/predictor variables.

The results of these analyses were examined just as was done with the analyses for H1 and H2 The F value of each regression was examined, and only those regressions with a p value less than .05 were used in support of H3 and H4 As several regressions addressed each of the two hypotheses an insignificant regression equation did not reject

either H3 or H4, but rather indicates a particular role modeling behavior does not have a significant relationship with the real or ideal distance worth scores used in that particular regression equation The regressions with significant F statistics indicate which indexes/variables of role modelng had significant relationships with distance worth scores, and therefore which such indexes/variables would support H3 and H4

For each of the significant regressions the t statistic and the Beta statistic for each of the individual predictor/independent variables (distance worth scores) were examined To determine significance of each of the predictor variables, the test statistic (t) was used. For any predictor variable to have a significant relationship with a role modelng index/variable, the p value of the test statistic must be less than 05 (p less than 05) The beta weights (B) or standardized regression coefficients, of each significant relationship were examined to explain the strength of the relationship between individual distance worth scores and role modeling indexes/variables This statistic not only explained the extent to which any of the individual distance worth scores related to role modeling, but it also explained which of the distance worth scores had the strongest relative relationships with role modeling

An examination of the results of the 21 completed regression analyses provided explanation of H3 and H4 and displayed selective support (or lack of support) of these hypotheses which predict significant relationships between role modeling and distance worth scores.

The following chapter Results, details the results of the described analysis These results address the four stated hypotheses and the potential support for these hypotheses based on the collected data for this study

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter details the results of administered surveys and ensuing data analysis In addition to a statistical review of the four stated hypotheses, the chapter includes a statistical review of the collected descriptive statistics of the study These statistics were used as a foundation for analysis of the hypotheses The following areas are addressed

1) A detailed list of the athletes chosen as sports heroes the sports played by these athletes and the frequency of selection of these athletes
2) Results of the participants' responses to the questionnaires on role modeling and intentions to role model sports heroes behaviors, factor analysis of the results of the role modeling questionnaires, and the creation of role modeling indexes, which were used as the dependent variables of role modeling for the tests of the hypotheses.
3) Results of the tests of self-concept, both real and ideal, and the test of the image of the sports hero These results are reported by the eight domains of self-concept
4) Results of the calculated distance scores. These results include both real distance scores (distance between real self-concept and the image of the sports hero) and ideal distance scores (distance between ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero), reported for each of the eight domains of self-concept These distance scores were used as the independent variables for Hypothesis I and Hypothesis II

5) Results of the 21 regression analyses completed to test H1 and H2, predicting a negative relationship between the dependent variable (role modeling) and the independent variables (real and ideal distance scores). These results include detailed descriptions of which particular distance scores had negative relationships with role modeling and for which of the particular role modeling indexes/variables these significant relationships exist. In other words, the discussion describes the particular areas of role modeling and the particular distance scores that bore significant negative relationships to each other.

6) Results of the domain importance questionnaire, reported for each of the eight domains of self-concept and the data reduction conducted on the results of these questionnaires.

7) Analysis of the creation of distance worth scores, both real and ideal, which incorporate both the distance scores and the corresponding domain importance score for that domain. These distance scores are reported for each of the eight domains of self-concept, and they were used as the independent variables for Hypothesis III and Hypothesis IV.

8) Results of the 21 regression analyses completed to test H3 and H4, predicting a negative relationship between the dependent variable (role modeling) and the independent variables (real and ideal distance worth scores). These results were reported in the same fashion as was done for H1 and H2.

9) Summary of the results of the hypotheses.

Descriptive Statistics

Much of the data collected for this study could not be used to test the hypotheses for this study until undergoing statistical transformations. However, this data provides important information about the sports heroes chosen in this study and the actual role

modeling intentions of the subjects in this study. Specifically, this section will detail the athletes chosen as sports heroes for this study, the results of the role modeling questionnaires, and the creation of role modeling indexes through factor analysis.

Chosen Sports Heroes

The actual athletes chosen as sports heroes in this study and the frequency with which they were chosen are detailed in the following table (Table 4-1). All athletes who were selected by more than one subject are named in the table. The data for athletes selected only once are summarized at the bottom of the table. Also included are the sports played by the selected sports heroes. It should be remembered that each subject could only choose one athlete. Further, this athlete had to be well known through television and other mass media outlets, eliminating local athletes or athletes only known through personal acquaintance.

Table 4-1 Athletes Chosen as Sports Hero, Listed in Descending Order by Frequency

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Michael Jordan (basketball)	16	9.3	9.3
Craig Biggio (baseball)	6	3.5	12.8
Mark McGuire (baseball)	6	3.5	16.3
Ken Griffey Jr (baseball)	6	3.5	19.8
Jeff Bagwell (baseball)	5	2.9	22.7
Steve Austin (pro wrestling)	4	2.3	25.0
Bill Goldberg (pro wrestling)	4	2.3	27.3
Ken Caminetti (baseball)	4	2.3	29.7
Ricky Williams (football)	4	2.3	32.0
Tiger Woods (golf)	3	1.7	33.7
Barry Sanders (football)	3	1.7	35.5
Jason Williams (basketball)	3	1.7	37.2
Charles Barkley (basketball)	3	1.7	39.0
Mike Tyson (boxing)	3	1.7	40.7
Sammy Sosa (baseball)	3	1.7	42.4
Pete Sampras (tennis)	3	1.7	44.2
Allen Iverson (basketball)	2	1.2	45.3
Tony Hawk (extreme sports)	2	1.2	46.5
Cal Ripkin Jr (baseball)	2	1.2	47.7
Tim Duncan (basketball)	2	1.2	48.8
Patrick Roy (hockey)	2	1.2	50.0
Greg Maddux (baseball)	2	1.2	51.2
Jerry Rice (football)	2	1.2	52.3
Jurgen Klinsmann (soccer)	2	1.2	53.5
Michael Owen (soccer)	2	1.2	54.7
Cobi Jones (soccer)	2	1.2	55.8
Kevin Garnett (basketball)	2	1.2	57.0
John Elway (football)	2	1.2	58.1
Emmitt Smith (football)	2	1.2	59.3
70 Athletes with 1 Vote Each.	70	40.7	100.0
Total	172	100.0	

Athletes with 1 vote 23 baseball, 15 basketball, 8 football, 4 hockey soccer, 4 track and field 3 golf, 8 other sports

Ninety-nine different athletes were chosen as sports heroes for the 172 subjects, demonstrating a diversity of selections. Of the athletes, Michael Jordan was selected by the most subjects by an overwhelming margin, with 16 subjects choosing the basketball star. This is not surprising given his athletic excellence, extremely heavy media coverage and marketing associations, and the generally positive conception of Jordan both on and off the court. Broken down by sport, however, baseball players were chosen by the largest number of subjects (57) followed by basketball (43) and football players (21). Because many of the subjects for this study were participants in a baseball tournament, the large number of subjects selecting baseball players is not surprising. These three major sports had far more sports heroes selected than all other sports in this study. A distant fourth in number of heroes chosen was professional wrestling, with eight subjects identifying wrestlers as their sports hero. Given the high television ratings for professional wrestling and the emphasis placed on the character development of wrestlers throughout the staged productions, it is not surprising that this "fake" sport had more hero selections than established sports such as hockey, tennis, track and field, and golf. This is true despite the fact that many subjects participated in these sports at school. However, these sports do not receive the same media coverage as the three major sports in America (football, baseball, and basketball) which accounted for the majority of athletes chosen in this study, providing support for the contention that television and other mass media are instruments in providing hero choices for adolescents. Only one of the 172 male subjects chose a female sports hero, soccer player Mia Hamm, stressing the importance of perceived similarity in the selection of a sports hero. Additionally, because male athletes typically receives far greater media coverage than female athletes, these subjects likely have had much more exposure to star male athletes than their female counterparts. This also may have influenced the dominant selection of male sports heroes by subjects in this study.

Although it may be difficult to find commonalties in the hero selections, virtually all athletes chosen currently are or once were stars in their sports. A select few may not have been stars but did overcome overwhelming odds to achieve success. One such example is Rudy Rudiger (selected by one subject) an undersized former Notre Dame football player who achieved his dream of playing football for Notre Dame despite his obvious lack of physical talent and size. Additionally, most of the identified athletes have displayed positive behaviors on and off the court throughout their careers. There were a few notable exceptions such as basketball player Charles Barkley (chosen by three subjects) and boxer Mike Tyson (chosen by three subjects), both of whom have displayed negative behaviors and encountered legal trouble for their behaviors off the court.

Finally, the sheer number of different athletes chosen (99) is notable. This suggests a large number of available sports heroes for adolescents and refutes the idea that only a small group of popular athletes are chosen as heroes. Subjects chose a wide range of athletes as their heroes, suggesting the individual nature of the selection of a sports hero, and even the most popular of athletes was selected by only 16 subjects. In other words, these subjects did not merely chose a sports hero because he was the most popular athlete in a particular sport. Therefore, it should be considered that adolescents, who may learn about their sports heroes from television and mass media, still play an active part in the selection of the particular televised athletes they choose as heroes.

Role Modeling

The results of participants' responses to the role modeling questionnaire are detailed in the following table. The role modeling variables and corresponding variable descriptions are listed in descending order from highest mean score (most likely to model) to lowest mean score (least likely to model). (5 = highest role modeling intentions, 1 = lowest role modeling intentions)

Table 4-2 Role Modeling Intentions Listed by Individual Role Modeling Variable

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
TRAIN (Train harder because of hero)	172	3 84	1 17
FRIEND (Support friends like hero)	172	3 28	1 42
TRASH (On-court behaviors like hero)	171	3 27	1 38
POSIT (Play same position as hero)	171	3 81	1 53
TECH (Learn athletic techniques from hero)	172	2 97	1 32
MOVES (Copy athletic moves of hero)	172	2 95	1 44
GIRLS (Popular with girls like hero)	172	2 83	1 52
STUDY (Study harder because of hero)	171	2 82	1 47
SHIRT (Wear sports shirt of hero)	171	2 78	1 62
OVERALL (General overall modeling)	169	2 72	78
OBS (Overcome obstacles like hero)	171	2 65	1.43
COMM (Communicate with coaches like hero)	172	2 64	1.29
FAM (Relationships with family like hero)	172	2.49	1.40
POLITE (Polite to family like hero)	171	2 47	1 48
ENDORSE (Buy products endorsed by hero)	171	2 34	1 31
VOL (Volunteer and charity work like hero)	172	2.29	1 31
UNIF (Wear uniform like hero)	172	2 27	1 30
ACT (Make more friends by acting like hero)	171	2 08	1 31
ANDRO (Take Andro/drugs like hero)	172	1 81	1 18
SNEAK (Wear sneakers like hero)	172	1 70	1 07
COL (Go to same college as hero)	172	1 62	1 09
HAIR (Get hairstyle like hero)	172	1 46	98
TATT (Get tattoo or earring like hero)	172	1 44	91

Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5

Mean scores for each variable ranged from 3 84 for TRAIN, or the desire to train like one's sports hero, to 1 44 for TATT, or the desire to get a tattoo or earring like one's sports hero The six role modeling variables with the highest mean scores, or the six behaviors that are reportedly most likely to be role modeled, deal with athletic behaviors, such as training techniques or playing a particular position, or other on the-court behaviors such as "trash talking" while playing or supporting one's teammates Note that a mean score (the variable ROLE, mean = 2 50) was calculated from all role modeling variables Additionally, a general question of role modeling intentions (the variable OVERALL mean = 2 72) was included in the questionnaire. Neither of these

variables were used in further analysis of hypothesis, but rather were used to further check the reliability of the results of this questionnaire. A correlation analysis among the two variables was conducted to further examine the relationships between these variables. According to the Pearson correlation analysis, the two variables had a significant correlation coefficient of .982 ($p < .01$).

The high correlation between these variables suggests that subjects answered questionnaires consistently and further supports this questionnaire as a reliable measure of role modeling intentions. Given these results, the questionnaire was deemed reliable enough to use in creating indexes to be used to test the stated hypotheses.

Factor Analysis of Role Modeling Variables

To create indexes of role modeling, a factor analysis of all role modeling variables was completed using varimax rotation. This resulted in six factors with eigenvalues greater than one (1). These six factors and the loading of each role modeling variable on each factor are detailed in the following table. Significant factor loadings are highlighted in bold italic print.

Table 4-3 Results of Factor Analysis of Role Modeling Variables

	Significant Factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
SNEAK (Wear sneakers like hero)	158	168	.033	*.594*	309	-.152
HAIR (Get hairstyle like hero)	388	179	102	.258	*.595*	047
UNIF (Wear uniform like hero)	182	398	086	*.557*	298	155
TATT (Get tattoo or earring like hero)	151	044	.092	.035	*.835*	112
POSIT (Play same position as hero)	096	*-.704*	145	.238	.017	109
MOVES (Copy athletic moves of hero)	044	*.746*	042	142	127	.255
TRAIN (Train harder because of hero)	352	*.636*	095	319	074	060
TECH (Learn athletic techniques of hero)	.237	*.611*	085	150	058	005
COL (Go to same college as hero)	259	341	005	223	182	347
ANDRO (Take Andro/drugs like hero)	018	038	094	-.003	020	*.830*
FAM (Relationships with family like hero)	216	036	*-.610*	.026	368	320
FRIEND (Support friends like hero)	186	078	*.814*	096	132	008
COMM (Communicate with coaches like hero)	238	177	*.775*	175	043	127
POLITE (Polite to family like hero)	*.722*	006	.380	121	037	-.005
VOL (Volunteer and charity work like hero)	*.799*	018	155	150	091	165
GIRLS (Popular with girls like hero)	194	230	189	100	387	-.476
TRASH (On-court behaviors like hero)	270	387	*.451*	055	156	023
STUDY (Study harder because of hero)	*.699*	303	114	.082	.087	035
OBS (Overcome obstacles like hero)	*.699*	282	161	187	018	070
ACT (Make more friends by acting like hero)	*.578*	052	245	282	185	294
ENDORSE (Buy products endorsed by hero)	302	202	119	*.599*	001	378
SHIRT (Wear sports shirt of hero)	116	074	139	*.800*	083	155

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

For a factor to be used as the foundation of an index for this analysis, that factor had to have both an eigenvalue greater than one (1) and at least three significant factor loadings as defined by a factor loading of greater than .4 on that factor and that factor only. By these criteria, four factors were used to create indexes (Factors 1 through 4). Factor 5 and Factor 6, which both had an eigenvalue greater than 1, only had two significant factor loadings per factor and therefore were not used to created indexes.

Two role modeling variables, TATT (getting a tattoo or earring like a sports hero) and ANDRO (modeling Andro or drug use of sports hero), loaded highly (.81 and .83 respectively) on Factors 5 and 6. Given the general importance in understanding the potential role modeling of these behaviors and the potential negative results of such role modeling, it was deemed worthwhile to include these variables in further analysis. Instead of being included in one of the role modeling indexes, these variables were used individually in the analysis of the stated hypotheses. They were not included in any of the four created indexes.

Role Modeling Indexes

Each of the four factors that met the above stated criteria was used to create a separate role modeling index. To create each index, the role modeling variables with significant loading (greater than .4 on that factor only) from each of the four factors were identified. (See chart below for significant variables used from each factor.) For each factor, a mean score was calculated from the identified significant variables. The mean score calculated from each of the four factors became an index of role modeling. These four created indexes of role modeling were used as dependent variables to test the stated hypotheses of the study. Additionally, an overall role modeling index was created by calculating a mean score from all 17 role modeling variables used in creating the four individual indexes. The individual indexes and a titled description of each index are detailed in the following table. The indexes are listed in descending order of mean score,

from highest mean score (most likely to role model) to lowest mean score (least likely to role model) (5 = highest role modeling intentions 1 = lowest role modeling intentions.)

Table 4-4 Role Modeling Indexes Created from Factor Analysis

	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Athletic Behaviors	171	3.1915	1.0080
Social Communications	171	2.9284	1.0281
Prosocial Behaviors	170	2.4635	1.0093
Consumer Behaviors	171	2.2719	.9670
Overall Indexed Behaviors	172	2.7069	.7810

Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5

A brief description of each index and the variables included in each variable is as follows

1) ATHLETIC BEHAVIORS (Behaviors related to athletic training and competition created from Factor 2) POSIT (play same position as hero) MOVES (copy athletic moves of hero) TRAIN (train harder because of hero), TECH (learn athletic techniques from hero)

2) SOCIAL COMMUNICATION (Behaviors relating to interactions with others, both on and off the court, created from Factor 3) FAM (relationships with family like hero) FRIEND (support friend like hero), COMM (communicate with coaches like hero) TRASH (on-court behaviors like hero)

3) PROSOCIAL BEHAVIORS (Positive behaviors, particularly in behaviors not related to athletics created from Factor 1) POLITE (polite to family like hero), VOL (volunteer and charity work like hero), STUDY (study harder because of hero), OBS (overcome obstacles because of hero), ACT (make more friends by acting like hero)

4) CONSUMER BEHAVIORS (Behaviors relating to using and purchasing products used and promoted by the sports hero, created from Factor 4) SNEAK (wear sneakers like hero) UNIF (wear uniform like hero) ENDORSE (buy products endorsed by hero), SHIRT (wear sports shirt of hero)

Reliability of the Role Modeling Indexes

With the combination of multiple variables to create role modeling indexes a statistical analysis of the reliability of each index was necessary Several statistics have been calculated from the data collected from the 172 subjects to substantiate the reliability of each index First, the internal consistency reliability as based on Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated for each index Often, this is the sole statistic used to examine the reliability of a measure However other statistical checks of reliability can also be used These additional statistics are most beneficial when the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is too low to ensure the reliability of the measure Two additional tests of reliability have been examined for each role modeling index Both of these reliability checks are described below

One of the statistics helpful in examining reliability is the correlation between each of the individual questions used to create each overall measure (in this case, each individual index of role modeling) This statistic indicates the strength of the relationship between the individual questions of the measure. Consistently high positive correlation between the questions increases the likelihood that these questions form a reliable measure. An extremely weak or negative correlation between questions for a measure, particularly when multiple examples of a weak or negative correlation exist for a measure, indicates that certain questions within a measure may not accurately assess the intended area of research as do the other questions of the measure Therefore, some individual questions may weaken the reliability of a particular measure

Another revealing statistic is the set of average item-to-total correlation for each of the variables used to create each measure. This statistic indicates the average of the

relationships of each individual question to the overall measure. Higher item-to-total correlation indicates greater reliability of the measure (in this case, each individual index of role modeling). Correlation values greater than .3 are desirable to ensure the reliability of the measure.

These three statistics, internal consistency reliability, correlation between individual variables, and average item to-total correlation are detailed in the following four tables. Each individual table outlines the reliability statistics for one specific index of role modeling. Each table includes a correlation matrix for the variables used to create the index, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the index, and the average item to-total correlation for the index.

Table 4-5 Reliability Statistics for Role Modeling Questions of the Athletic Behavior Index

	POSIT	MOVES	TRAIN	TECH
POSIT (play position of hero)	1.000	.564	.303	.256
MOVES (copy athletic	.564	1.000	.313	.395
TRAIN (train harder)	.303	.313	1.000	.488
TECH (learn technique)	.256	.395	.488	1.000

N of Cases = 171
Alpha = .7138
Average Item to Total Correlation = .5042

Table 4-6 Reliability Statistics for Role Modeling Questions of the Social Communication Index

	FAM	FRIEND	COMM	TRASH
FAM (relations with family)	1.000	.405	.505	.312
FRIEND (support friends)	.405	1.000	.588	.325
COMM (communicate)	.505	.588	1.000	.392
TRASH (on-court behaviors)	.312	.325	.392	1.000

N of Cases = 171
Alpha = .7420
Average Item to Total Correlation = .5387

Table 4-7 Reliability Statistics for Role Modeling Questions of the Prosocial Behavior Index

	POLITE	VOL	STUDY	OBS	ACT
POLITE (polite to family)	1.000	.642	.489	.456	.493
VOL (volunteer and charity)	.642	1.000	.508	.491	.541
STUDY (study harder)	.489	.508	1.000	.546	.416
OBS (overcome obstacles)	.456	.491	.546	1.000	.457
ACT (make more friends)	.493	.541	.416	.457	1.000

N of Cases = 170
Alpha = .8342
Average Item to Total Correlation = .6359

Table 4-8 Reliability Statistics for Role Modeling Questions of the Consumer Behavior Index

	SNEAK	UNIF	ENDORSE	SHIRT
SNEAK (wear shoes)	1.000	.383	.326	.299
UNIF (uniform wearing style)	.383	1.000	.370	.366
ENDORSE (buy products)	.326	.370	1.000	.471
SHIRT (wear sport shirt)	.299	.366	.471	1.000

N of Cases = 171
Alpha = .6953
Average Item to Total Correlation = .4866

The Cronbach s Alpha coefficients ranged from .6953 for Consumer Behaviors to .8342 for Prosocial Behavior. Further examination of the reliability statistics reveal positive correlations between all of the variables used to create each of the individual indexes. Additionally, the average item to total correlation for each index ranged from .4866 for Consumer Behaviors to .6359 for Prosocial Behaviors. Although higher Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of reliability would be preferable to ensure the reliability of each index, the positive correlation of all variables within each index and the relatively high average item-to-total correlation for each index indicate that these four created role modeling indexes were reliable measures of their respective behavioral categories.

In addition to the four role modeling indexes an Overall Behavior Index was created from all 17 of the role modeling variables used to create the four described indexes Additionally, the two role modeling variables TATT (get a tattoo or earring like one's hero) and ANDRO (take Andro or drugs like one's hero) were used individually in further analysis of role modeling, although they were not included in any of the role modeling indexes These seven variables (five indexes and two role modeling variables) were the dependent variables for the tests of all the stated hypotheses.

Self-Concept, Image of Sports Hero, and Distance Scores

Self-Concept

The real and ideal self-concept scores and the image of the sports hero were calculated as instructed by Harter's Test of Adolescent Self-Concept, resulting in eight domain scores for each of the three constructs These results for the tests of self-concept, both real and ideal, are detailed in the two following tables Each of the eight domains of self-concept are listed, in descending order, from the highest mean score (highest rating of personal competence) to the lowest mean score (lowest rating of personal competence)

Table 4-9 Real Self Concept, Listed by Domain

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Social	172	3 0677	5925
Scholastic	172	3 0497	6146
Friendship	172	3 0387	7063
Job Competence	172	3 0134	5592
Athletics	172	3 0087	6310
Romantic	172	2 7907	6613
Physical	172	2 7020	6300
Behavior	172	2 6919	6635

Minimum = 1 Maximum = 4

Table 4-10 Ideal Self-Concept Listed by Domain

	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Social	172	3 5372	4698
Scholastic	172	3 5119	5385
Romantic	172	3 4171	5804
Athletic	172	3 4169	6010
Friendship	172	3 3846	6342
Physical	172	3 3520	5775
Job Competence	172	3 3201	5973
Behavior	172	3 2852	6366

Minimum = 1 Maximum = 4

For both real and ideal self-concept, the social domain has the highest mean score of all eight domains, followed by the scholastic domain In other words, subjects viewed themselves as more competent in the social domain than in the other seven domains of self concept They also rated the social domain as the area in which they ideally would hold the highest level of competence Additionally, the behavior domain has the lowest mean score for all eight domains in both self concepts, indicating a low relative sense of competency in this area self-concept In all of the eight domains, the mean score for ideal self-concept is higher than the mean score for real self-concept, as would be expected. This suggested the subjects perceived level of competence was below their ideal level of competence T Tests were completed to confirm a significant difference between real and ideal self-concept in each domain. Real self-concept scores from each of the eight domains were compared to ideal self-concept scores from the same domain, resulting in eight separate T Tests The results of these T-Tests are detailed in the following table

Table 4-11 Differences Between Real Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept, Listed by Domain of Self-Concept

	Paired Differences			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig (2 tailed)
Real/Ideal Athletic Self-Concept	4041	.5675	9 432	000
Real/Ideal Behavior Self-Concept	5933	7818	11 088	000
Real/Ideal Friend Self Concept	3459	.5732	7 915	000
Real/Ideal Job Self-Concept	3067	.5207	7 724	000
Real/Ideal Physical Self-Concept	6508	7620	11 187	000
Real/Ideal Romantic Self-Concept	6264	7292	11 266	000
Real/Ideal Scholastic Self Concept	4622	.5845	10 371	000
Real/Ideal Social Self-Concept	4695	5824	10 573	000

For each of the eight domains, real self-concept was significantly lower than ideal self-concept. Therefore, these subjects have not achieved their ideal self, and there is a significant difference between how they perceive themselves and how they would like to be

Image of the Sports Hero

Similar to the results of the tests for self-concept, these results for the tests of the image of the sports hero are detailed in the following table Each of the eight domains of the image are listed in descending order from the highest mean score (highest image) to the lowest mean score (lowest image)

Table 4-12 Image of the Sports Hero, Listed by Domain

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Athletic	172	3.3096	.6005
Job Competence	172	3.2081	.6195
Social	172	3.0677	.5925
Scholastic	172	3.0497	.6146
Friendship	172	3.0387	.7063
Romantic	172	2.7907	.6613
Physical	172	2.7020	.6380
Behavior	172	2.6919	.6635

Minimum = 1 Maximum = 4

For the image of the sports hero the athletic domain had the highest mean score followed by job competence which given the nature of the sports hero and his employment, also relates to athletics Therefore, athletic components of the sports hero were given the highest mean scores As with both types of self-concept, the behavior domain received the lowest mean score Such results suggest a view of sports heroes which place a premium on supreme athletic competence yet allow for lower levels of competence in non-athletic areas particularly in the ability to behave in the right way and avoid getting into trouble In other words, supreme athleticism is the leading characteristic of the modern sports hero above other social characteristics of the traditional hero, an idea suggested in the literature review

When viewing the image of the sports hero in relation to the real and ideal self-concepts, the image of the sports hero fell in-between the real and ideal self-concepts for seven of the eight domains The only domain for which this was not true was the behavior domain, where the mean score of the sports hero fell below both the ideal and the real self-concepts. Therefore these subjects felt the sports hero typically falls somewhere between who they are and who they ideally would like to be for all areas except for the behavioral domain which measures the ability to behave in the proper

manner and avoid getting in trouble. The sports hero may not necessarily be the ideal for these subjects, but he is a step from the real self toward the ideal

Distance Scores

Distance scores were calculated in each of the eight domains for the following two relationships: distance between the real self-concept and the image of the sports hero (real distance) and distance between the ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero (ideal distance). This resulted in 16 distance scores (eight real distance scores and eight ideal distance scores). As described earlier, these distance scores reflect the distances between the individual self-concept (both real and ideal) and the image of one's sports hero in each of the eight domains. The formula for calculating distance scores and an explanation of this formula can be found in the preceding Methods chapter. As calculated for this study, the lower the distance score for each domain, the closer the particular domain of self-concept is to the image of the sports hero in that domain. In other words, lower distance scores indicate closer proximity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero.

The results of these calculations are detailed in the following table. The distance scores for both real distance and ideal distance are listed, in ascending order, from lowest distance score (closest distance from self-concept to sports hero image) to highest distance score (furthest distance from self-concept to sports hero image).

Table 4-13 Distance Scores of Self-Concept to Sports Hero Real and Ideal, Listed by Domain

	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Ideal Athletic Distance	169	3.7041	5.0102
Ideal Social Distance	168	3.9643	5.6842
Ideal Physical Distance	167	4.9162	5.4854
Ideal Job Distance	168	5.0417	6.8999
Ideal Friendship Distance	171	5.2047	6.8117
Ideal Romantic Distance	171	5.2865	6.2746
Real Athletic Distance	169	5.8935	5.8676
Real Social Distance	168	6.0119	5.9529
Real Job Distance	168	6.0179	5.6202
Real Behavior Distance	168	6.2440	7.0639
Real Friendship Distance	171	6.6491	7.7037
Real Behavior Distance	168	7.3274	7.2364
Real Scholastic Distance	170	7.6824	6.8045
Real Physical Distance	168	7.8750	7.6762
Real Romantic Distance	171	7.9883	7.6535
Ideal Scholastic Distance	170	8.0941	8.0533

Of the 16 distance scores (eight real eight ideal), the six domain scores with the lowest mean scores (least distance) were ideal distance scores Additionally, nine of the ten distance scores with the highest mean scores (furthest distance) were real distance scores, the exception being Ideal Scholastic Distance, which had the highest mean score of all 16 distance scores. The athletic and social distance scores were lowest for both the ideal and real distance scores, suggesting that these subjects perceived themselves as closest to their sports heroes in these two areas and that they aspired to be close to their sports heroes the most in these two areas These 16 distance scores were used as the independent variables for Hypothesis I and Hypothesis II

Reliability of Real Distance Scores and Ideal Distance Scores

Because the creation of each of the 16 distance scores involved the combining of five separate measures of the distance between self-concept and the image of the sports hero to create one overall distance score for each domain of both real and ideal self-concept, an analysis of the reliability of these distance scores was necessary Thus

statistical analysis is detailed in the following section (Please refer to the Methods section for a description of the creation of distance scores)

For each distance score three statistical checks of reliability (internal consistency reliability correlation between individual variables, and average item-to-total correlation) were examined These three statistics are detailed in the following tables, and each individual table outlines the reliability statistics for one distance score Each table includes a correlation matrix for the five separate distances between self-concept and the image of the sports hero used to create the overall measure, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the measure and the average item to-total correlation for the measure The first eight tables below detail the reliability for the real distance score measures

Table 4-14 Reliability Statistics for Real Social Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1 000	399	237	228	312
Distance 2	399	1 000	257	164	335
Distance 3	237	257	1 000	102	159
Distance 4	228	164	102	1 000	261
Distance 5	312	335	159	261	1 000

N of Cases = 168
Alpha = 6210
Average Item to Total Correlation = 3759

Table 4-15 Reliability Statistics for Real Scholastic Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1 000	102	158	060	051
Distance 2	102	1 000	320	404	259
Distance 3	158	320	1.000	289	243
Distance 4	060	404	289	1 000	342
Distance 5	051	259	245	342	1 000

N of Cases = 170
Alpha = 5893
Average Item to Total Correlation = 3504

Table 4-16 Reliability Statistics for Real Athletic Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.430	.373	.159	.241
Distance 2	.430	1.000	.138	.068	.238
Distance 3	.373	.138	1.000	.189	.137
Distance 4	.159	.068	.189	1.000	.349
Distance 5	.241	.238	.137	.349	1.000

N of Cases = 169
Alpha = .6032
Average Item to Total Correlation = .3589

Table 4-17 Reliability Statistics for Real Physical Distance Scores.

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.344	.262	.350	.381
Distance 2	.344	1.000	.493	.249	.258
Distance 3	.262	.493	1.000	.311	.260
Distance 4	.350	.249	.311	1.000	.524
Distance 5	.381	.258	.260	.524	1.000

N of Cases = 168
Alpha = .7221
Average Item to Total Correlation = .4819

Table 4-18 Reliability Statistics for Real Job Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.185	.119	.071	.054
Distance 2	.185	1.000	.202	.228	.262
Distance 3	.119	.202	1.000	.195	.221
Distance 4	.071	.228	.195	1.000	.313
Distance 5	.054	.262	.221	.313	1.000

N of Cases = 168
Alpha = .5263
Average Item to Total Correlation = .2966.

Table 4-19 Reliability Statistics for Real Romantic Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.227	.452	.372	.280
Distance 2	.227	1.000	.314	.300	.343
Distance 3	.452	.314	1.000	.383	.279
Distance 4	.372	.300	.383	1.000	.296
Distance 5	.280	.343	.279	.296	1.000

N of Cases = 171
Alpha = .7041
Average Item to Total Correlation = .4617

Table 4-20 Reliability Statistics for Real Behavior Distance Scores.

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.270	.291	.168	.442
Distance 2	.270	1.000	.273	.310	.275
Distance 3	.291	.273	1.000	.265	.371
Distance 4	.168	.310	.265	1.000	.296
Distance 5	.442	.275	.371	.296	1.000

N of Cases = 168
Alpha = .6779
Average Item to Total Correlation = .4323

Table 4-21 Reliability Statistics for Real Friend Distance Scores.

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.356	.323	.298	.490
Distance 2	.356	1.000	.503	.408	.393
Distance 3	.323	.503	1.000	.394	.409
Distance 4	.298	.408	.394	1.000	.377
Distance 5	.490	.393	.409	.377	1.000

N of Cases = 171
Alpha = .7655
Average Item to Total Correlation = .5350

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of reliability ranged from .5263 for Real Job Distance to .7655 for Real Friend Distance. All of the distance scores had average item-to-total correlations greater than .3 except for Real Job Distance, which had an

average item-to-total correlation of .2966. The reliability statistics also reveal positive correlations between all of the variables/distances used to create each of the individual real distance score measures. A few slightly weaker correlations, although still positive, came within the measures of Real Job Distance and Real Scholastic Distance. Because many of the subjects for this study have had limited experience working in actual jobs, they may not yet have formed a strong sense of their own self-perceptions in this area. This likely accounted for the relatively weak reliability statistics for the measure of Real Job Distance. Similarly, it is possible that these subjects did not have well developed perceptions of the academic abilities of their heroes. This would be particularly true for those subjects who selected their heroes based primarily on the hero's athletic abilities and accomplishments, not the hero's abilities in other areas of life. This likely accounted for the relatively weak reliability statistics for the measure of Real Scholastic Distance.

Although higher Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of reliability would be preferable to ensure the reliability of each real distance score measure, the positive correlation of all variables within each measure and the relatively high average item-to-total correlation for each measure indicate that these eight distance scores were reliable measures of the distance between real self-concept and the image of the sports hero.

The following eight tables outline the same reliability statistics (internal consistency reliability, correlation between individual variables, and average item-to-total correlations) for the eight ideal distance score measures.

Table 4-22 Reliability Statistics for Ideal Social Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.414	.183	.155	.466
Distance 2	.414	1.000	.263	.305	.389
Distance 3	.183	.263	1.000	.316	.316
Distance 4	.155	.305	.316	1.000	.499
Distance 5	.466	.389	.316	.499	1.000

N of Cases = 168
Alpha = .7066
Average Item to Total Correlation = .4673

Table 4-23 Reliability Statistics for Ideal Scholastic Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.276	.312	.259	.205
Distance 2	.276	1.000	.360	.317	.361
Distance 3	.312	.360	1.000	.499	.393
Distance 4	.259	.317	.499	1.000	.341
Distance 5	.205	.361	.393	.341	1.000

N of Cases = 170
Alpha = .7125
Average Item to Total Correlation = .4719

Table 4-24 Reliability Statistics for Ideal Athletic Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.456	.116	.135	.171
Distance 2	.456	1.000	.103	.305	.189
Distance 3	.116	.103	1.000	.197	.246
Distance 4	.135	.305	.197	1.000	.234
Distance 5	.171	.189	.246	.234	1.000

N of Cases = 169
Alpha = .5753
Average Item to Total Correlation = .3352

Table 4-25 Reliability Statistics for Ideal Physical Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.133	.145	.167	.256
Distance 2	.133	1.000	.306	.262	.258
Distance 3	.145	.306	1.000	.285	.271
Distance 4	.167	.262	.285	1.000	.512
Distance 5	.256	.258	.271	.512	1.000

N of Cases = 167
Alpha = .6392
Average Item to Total Correlation = .3936.

Table 4-26 Reliability Statistics for Ideal Job Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.428	.277	.172	.337
Distance 2	.428	1.000	.358	.188	.366
Distance 3	.277	.358	1.000	.269	.279
Distance 4	.172	.188	.269	1.000	.247
Distance 5	.337	.366	.279	.247	1.000

N of Cases = 168
Alpha = .6712
Average Item to Total Correlation = .4277

Table 4-27 Reliability Statistics for Ideal Romantic Distance Scores.

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.215	.290	.254	.207
Distance 2	.215	1.000	.319	.170	.395
Distance 3	.290	.319	1.000	.384	.215
Distance 4	.254	.170	.384	1.000	.235
Distance 5	.207	.395	.215	.235	1.000

N of Cases = 171
Alpha = .6443
Average Item to Total Correlation = .3987

Table 4-28 Reliability Statistics for Ideal Behavior Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.223	.312	.278	.451
Distance 2	.223	1.000	.358	.394	.347
Distance 3	.312	.358	1.000	.119	.407
Distance 4	.278	.394	.119	1.000	.345
Distance 5	.451	.347	.407	.345	1.000

N of Cases = 168
Alpha = .7033
Average Item to Total Correlation = .4625

Table 4-29 Reliability Statistics for Ideal Friend Distance Scores

	Distance 1	Distance 2	Distance 3	Distance 4	Distance 5
Distance 1	1.000	.340	.222	.220	.426
Distance 2	.340	1.000	.542	.224	.329
Distance 3	.222	.542	1.000	.389	.405
Distance 4	.220	.224	.389	1.000	.450
Distance 5	.426	.329	.405	.450	1.000

N of Cases = 171
Alpha = .7320
Average Item to Total Correlation = .4944

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of reliability ranged from .5753 for Ideal Athletic Distance to .7320 for Ideal Friend Distance. All of the ideal distance score measures had average item-to-total correlations greater than .3. The reliability statistics also reveal positive correlations between all of the variables/distances used to create each of the individual ideal distance score measures.

As with the real distance score measures, higher Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of reliability would be preferable to ensure the reliability of each ideal distance score measure, but the positive correlation of all variables within each measure and the relatively high average item-to-total correlation for each measure indicate that these eight ideal distance scores were reliable measures of the distance between ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero.

Comparison of Real Distance Scores to Ideal Distance Scores

It was expected that the image of the sports hero would be closer to the ideal self-concept than the real self-concept, or that these subjects would perceive their sports hero as more similar to their ideal than to their real self. In other words, it would be expected that ideal distance scores would be smaller than real distance scores. T-Tests were calculated for each domain to confirm this assumption. Real distance scores from each of the eight domains were compared to ideal distance scores from the same domain resulting in eight separate T Tests. It was expected that there would be a significant difference between ideal distance and real distance for each of the eight domains. The results of these T Tests are detailed in the following table.

Table 4-30 Differences Between Real Distance Scores and Ideal Distance Scores Listed by Domain of Distance Score.

	Paired Differences			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. (2 tailed)
Real/Ideal Athletic Distance	2.1893	5.8483	4.867	.000
Real/Ideal Behavior Distance	1.0833	7.3358	1.914	.057
Real/Ideal Friend Distance	1.4444	6.1779	3.057	.003
Real/Ideal Job Distance	.9762	5.2082	2.429	.016
Real/Ideal Physical Distance	2.9940	8.6807	4.457	.000
Real/Ideal Romantic Distance	2.7818	7.3644	4.797	.000
Real/Ideal Scholastic Distance	.4118	6.8953	.779	.437
Real/Ideal Social Distance	2.0476	6.0673	4.374	.000

For six of the eight domains, the ideal distance scores are significantly smaller than the real distance scores. Therefore, these subjects perceived their sports heroes as closer to their ideal self than their real self in six of the eight domains. The only two domains for which this is not true are the behavior domain and the scholastic domain. In fact, the scholastic domain is the only one of the eight domains where the image of the

sports hero is closer to the real self concept than the ideal self-concept, reflecting both a high ideal academic self-concept and a correspondingly low image of the sports hero's competence in academic areas. For six of the areas of self-concept, however, it can be stated that the sports hero more closely approximates the ideal self, or who these subjects want to be, than the real self or who these subjects currently perceive themselves to be.

Results for Hypothesis I and Hypothesis II

The first hypothesis (H1) predicted a negative relationship between real distance and role modeling intentions. Therefore, it was expected that there would be a negative and significant relationship between the individual indexes of role modeling and the real distance scores. To test this, a separate regression analysis was done for each role modeling index, the overall role modeling index, and the individual variables "TATT" (getting a tattoo or earring like one's hero) and "ANDRO" (using Andro or drugs like one's hero). For each regression analysis, the role modeling variable/index served as the dependent variable, while each of the eight real distance scores for the eight domains served as the independent variables. Therefore, seven separate regression analyses were done to test H1.

The second hypothesis (H2) predicted a negative relationship between ideal distance and role modeling intentions. The regression analyses for this hypothesis were identical to those done for H1, except that ideal distance scores were used instead of real distance scores as the independent variables.

A third group of regression analyses were done that included both real distance scores and ideal distance scores. These analyses, which addressed both H1 and H2, were the same as those done for real distance and for ideal distance, except that all 16 distance scores (eight real distance, eight ideal distance) were used as the independent variables for each of the seven regression equations. For each equation, one of the four role

modeling indexes, the overall role modeling index, or ANDRO or TATT served as the dependent variable. By including all distance scores as independent variables, these regression analyses helped to determine whether real or ideal distance scores were stronger predictors of each individual role modeling index/behavior. Additionally, these regression analyses should create a more predictive regression equation for each of the role modeling indexes/variables by accounting for a larger percentage of the variance of each of these independent variables (in other words, to increase the R^2 of each regression analysis). Finally, because the exclusion of important predictor variables can drastically affect the results of regression analysis, it was hoped that including all the distance scores (real and ideal) would increase the prospect of achieving statistically significant results (Licht, 1995).

The results of all of the regression analyses for these two hypotheses are detailed in the following tables. The tables are organized by dependent variable (role modeling index/variable), not by hypotheses. Therefore, all three regression analyses for each of the seven dependent variables are grouped together. A more general discussion of the individual hypotheses follows these results. For each of the significant regression analyses that produced a significant F value (p less than .05), one table details both the overall significance of the regression (including the R and R^2 values and the F-value) and the significance of the separate independent variables (distance scores). Following each table is a description of the significant relationship(s) between the independent variable(s) and the role modeling index/variable. This includes the Beta coefficient for each relationship. For each relationship, "*" indicates significance at p less than .05, and "**" indicates significance at p less than .01.

For those regressions whose F Statistic is not significant at the .05 level, only a brief text description of the analysis is given. In the proceeding section, for each role modeling index/variable examined in this research, the regression analysis with only real distance scores is explained first, followed by the regression analysis with only ideal

distance scores The regression analysis with both real and ideal distance scores is described last for each index/behavior

Following the tables of the separate regression analyses one overall table summarizes the results of these analyses. This table indicates which role modeling indexes/variables were significantly related to the distance scores and which particular distance scores had significant relationships with each of these indexes/variables

Prosocial Behaviors

Table 4-31 Regression Analysis for Real Self-Concept Distance Scores on Prosocial Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	2 804	160		17 559	000
Real Athletic Distance	026	016	133	1 601	112
Real Behavior Distance	- 016	013	108	−1 164	246
Real Friend Distance	022	014	152	1 516	132
Real Job Distance	038	019	190	−2 010	046
Real Physical Distance	.034	013	234	2 644	009
Real Romantic Distance	- 017	016	112	1.079	.282
Real Scholastic Distance	.013	014	087	957	340
Real Social Distance	- 010	020	049	492	624

R = 364
R Square = 132
F 2 765
Significance of F = 007

The distance scores with significant relationships with prosocial behaviors were real job distance (Beta = - 19*) and real physical distance (Beta = 23**, NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted)

Ideal distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance scores on prosocial behaviors ($p > .05$).

Table 4-32 Regression Analysis for Real and Ideal Self-Concept Distance Scores on Prosocial Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	2.929	.175		16.758	.000
Real athletic distance	.039	.018	.203	2.176	.031
Ideal athletic distance	.039	.023	.184	1.704	.091
Real behavior distance	.016	.015	.108	1.046	.297
Ideal behavior distance	.015	.016	.104	.950	.344
Real friend distance	.029	.018	.202	1.591	.114
Ideal friend distance	.001	.019	.004	.032	.975
Real job distance	.039	.022	-.195	1.737	.085
Ideal job distance	.005	.022	.031	.214	.831
Real physical distance	.028	.013	.196	2.118	.036
Ideal physical distance	.006	.018	.031	.323	.747
Real romantic distance	.021	.016	-.140	1.284	.201
Ideal romantic distance	.021	.024	.124	.883	.379
Real scholastic distance	.003	.017	.018	-.160	.873
Ideal scholastic distance	.025	.016	.200	1.580	.116
Real social distance	.010	.022	.053	.472	.638
Ideal social distance	.011	.023	.058	.451	.653

R = .452
R Square = .204
F = 2.184
Significance of F = .008

The distance scores with significant relationships with prosocial behaviors were real athletic distance (Beta = -.20*) and real physical distance (Beta = .19* NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted) Note that although no ideal distance scores had significant relationships, their inclusion affected the relationships between real distance scores and prosocial behaviors

Athletic Behaviors

Table 4-33 Regression Analysis for Real Self-Concept Distance Scores on Athletic Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	3.645	.150		24.222	.000
Real Athletic Distance	.044	.015	.238	2.922	.004
Real Behavior Distance	.000	.013	.000	.003	.997
Real Friend Distance	.003	.013	.026	.259	.796
Real Job Distance	.044	.017	.239	2.601	.010
Real Physical Distance	.016	.012	.118	1.352	.178
Real Romantic Distance	.006	.015	.042	.412	.681
Real Scholastic Distance	.011	.013	.078	.871	.385
Real Social Distance	.015	.018	.078	.803	.423

R = .392
R Square = .153
F = 3.309
Significance of F = .002

The distance scores with significant relationships with athletic behaviors were real athletic distance (Beta = .24**) and real job distance (Beta = .24*)

Ideal distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance scores on athletic behaviors ($p > .05$)

Table 4-34 Regression Analysis for Real and Ideal Self-Concept Distance Scores on Athletic Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	3 600	166		21 624	000
Real athletic distance	063	017	341	3 675	000
Ideal athletic distance	052	021	262	2 433	016
Real behavior distance	006	014	045	438	662
Ideal behavior distance	011	015	076	701	484
Real friend distance	002	017	011	080	930
Ideal friend distance	011	018	073	607	545
Real job distance	041	021	221	1 978	050
Ideal job distance	004	021	027	187	852
Real physical distance	014	013	099	1 083	281
Ideal physical distance	016	017	091	967	335
Real romantic distance	009	015	066	609	544
Ideal romantic distance	004	022	025	181	857
Real scholastic distance	008	016	056	509	611
Ideal scholastic distance	002	015	015	120	905
Real social distance	003	021	013	121	904
Ideal social distance	021	022	120	938	350

R = 456
R Square = 208
F = 2 249
Significance of F = 006

The distance scores with significant relationships with athletic behaviors were real athletic distance (Beta = - 34**) real job distance (Beta = - 22*), and ideal athletic distance (Beta = 26* NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted) Note that the inclusion of real distance scores affected the relationships between ideal distance scores and athletic behaviors.

Social Communication

Real distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real distance scores on social communication ($p > .05$).

Ideal distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance scores on social communication ($p > .05$)

Table 4-35 Regression Analysis for Real and Ideal Self-Concept Distance Scores on Social Communication

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	3.202	.171		18.775	.000
Real athletic distance	.050	.018	.267	2.817	.006
Ideal athletic distance	.038	.022	.191	1.736	.085
Real behavior distance	.001	.015	.007	.069	.945
Ideal behavior distance	-.003	.016	-.024	-.217	.828
Real friend distance	.011	.018	.082	.638	.524
Ideal friend distance	.012	.016	.070	.641	.523
Real job distance	.024	.021	.125	1.097	.274
Ideal job distance	.008	.022	.054	.370	.712
Real physical distance	.002	.013	.016	.169	.866
Ideal physical distance	.029	.017	.162	1.692	.093
Real romantic distance	.004	.016	.026	.236	.814
Ideal romantic distance	.055	.023	.340	2.386	.018
Real scholastic distance	.007	.017	.045	.397	.692
Ideal scholastic distance	.017	.016	.138	1.072	.286
Real social distance	.026	.021	.150	1.316	.190
Ideal social distance	.004	.023	.022	.170	.865

R = .417
R Square .174
F = 1.803
Significance of F = .036

The distance scores with significant relationships with social communication were real athletic distance (Beta = .26**) and ideal romantic distance (Beta = .33*). Note that the inclusion of both real and ideal distance scores affected the relationships between both real distance scores and ideal distance scores with social communication

Consumer Behaviors

Real distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real distance scores on consumer behaviors ($p > .05$).

Ideal distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance scores on consumer behaviors ($p > .05$)

Real and ideal distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real and ideal distance scores on consumer behaviors ($p > .05$).

Overall Behaviors

Table 4-36 Regression Analysis for Real Self-Concept Distance Scores on Overall Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	2.990	.115		25.920	.000
Real Athletic Distance	-.032	.012	.223	2.754	.007
Real Behavior Distance	-.005	.010	.049	-.538	.592
Real Friend Distance	.003	.010	.030	.306	.760
Real Job Distance	-.035	.013	.246	2.681	.008
Real Physical Distance	.023	.009	.215	2.476	.014
Real Romantic Distance	.007	.011	.060	.588	.557
Real Scholastic Distance	.001	.010	.011	.126	.900
Real Social Distance	-.003	.014	.018	.185	.854

R = .391
R Square = .153
F = 3.323
Significance of F = .002

The distance scores with significant relationships with overall behaviors were real athletic distance (Beta = .23**), real job distance (Beta = -.22*), and real physical distance (Beta = .21*, NOTE: This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted).

Ideal distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance scores on overall behaviors ($p > .05$).

Table 4-37 Regression Analysis for Real and Ideal Self-Concept Distance Scores on Overall Behaviors.

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	3.018	.125		24.063	.000
Real athletic distance	.044	.013	-.313	-3.419	.001
Ideal athletic distance	.034	.016	.222	2.100	.038
Real behavior distance	.005	.011	.047	.465	.643
Ideal behavior distance	.003	.012	.024	.225	.822
Real friend distance	.006	.013	.050	.465	.643
Ideal friend distance	.006	.013	.051	.429	.668
Real job distance	.035	.016	.246	2.225	.028
Ideal job distance	.002	.016	.018	.126	.900
Real physical distance	.016	.010	.150	1.656	.100
Ideal physical distance	.019	.013	.136	1.469	.144
Real romantic distance	.005	.012	.047	.445	.657
Ideal romantic distance	.013	.017	.108	.792	.429
Real scholastic distance	.001	.012	.012	.114	.909
Ideal scholastic distance	.013	.012	.145	1.167	.245
Real social distance	.005	.016	.035	.320	.750
Ideal social distance	.013	.017	.097	.771	.442

R .475
R Square = .225
F = 2.511
Significance of F = .002

The distance scores with significant relationships with overall behaviors were real athletic distance (Beta = .32**) real job distance (Beta = .22*) and ideal athletic distance (Beta = .22*, NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted) Note that the inclusion of both real and ideal distance scores affected the relationships between both real distance scores and ideal distance scores with overall behaviors

Tattoo or Earring Modeling Behaviors

Real distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real distance scores on tattoo or earring modeling behaviors ($p > .05$)

Table 4-38 Regression for Ideal Self-Concept Distance Scores on Tattoo or Earring Modeling Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	1.347	.112		11.995	.000
Ideal athletic distance	.043	.016	.247	2.662	.009
Ideal behavior distance	.006	.012	.045	.467	.642
Ideal friend distance	.019	.014	.145	1.348	.180
Ideal job distance	.022	.016	.173	1.413	.160
Ideal physical distance	.000	.014	-.003	.029	.977
Ideal romantic distance	-.036	.019	-.255	-1.937	.055
Ideal scholastic distance	.004	.012	.048	.355	.723
Ideal social distance	.007	.018	.048	.402	.688

R = .337

R Square = .114

F = 2.338

Significance of F = .022

The only distance score with a significant relationship with tattoo or earring modeling behaviors was ideal athletic distance (Beta = .24**, NOTE. This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted)

Table 4-39 Regression Analysis for Real and Ideal Self-Concept Distance Scores on Tattoo or Earring Modeling Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	1.385	.149		9.293	.000
Real athletic distance	.019	.015	.119	1.255	.212
Ideal athletic distance	.056	.019	.319	2.908	.004
Real behavior distance	-.001	.013	.009	.083	.934
Ideal behavior distance	.001	.014	.006	.058	.954
Real friend distance	.002	.016	.017	.132	.895
Ideal friend distance	.018	.016	.135	1.108	.270
Real job distance	.007	.018	.046	.404	.687
Ideal job distance	.021	.019	.160	1.095	.276
Real physical distance	-.025	.011	.209	2.226	.028
Ideal physical distance	.003	.015	.020	.205	.838
Real romantic distance	.004	.014	.035	.317	.752
Ideal romantic distance	.044	.020	.315	2.231	.027
Real scholastic distance	.019	.014	.147	1.315	.191
Ideal scholastic distance	.014	.014	.130	1.014	.312
Real social distance	.018	.019	.110	.978	.330
Ideal social distance	.016	.020	.105	.805	.422

R .410
R Square = .168
F = 1.741
Significance of F = .046

The distance scores with significant relationships with tattoo or earring modeling behaviors were real physical distance (Beta = -.20*), ideal athletic distance (Beta = .31**, NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted), and ideal romantic distance (Beta = .31*) Note that the inclusion of both real and ideal distance scores affected the relationships between both real distance scores and ideal distance scores with tattoo or earring modeling behaviors.

Using Andro Modeling Behaviors

Real distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real distance scores on using Andro modeling behaviors ($p > .05$)

Ideal distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance scores on using Andro modeling behaviors ($p > .05$).

Real and ideal distance scores. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real and ideal distance scores on using Andro modeling behaviors ($p > .05$)

Summary Chart of Significant Results of Regression Analyses for H1 and H2

The results of the above regression analyses are summarized in the following table. A number in a cell indicates a significant relationship was found between that role modeling index/variable and the corresponding distance score. The particular regressions in which the significant relationships were found are explained by the key beneath the table. In other words, the numbers indicate whether the relationship was found in the regression including only real distance scores, the regression including only ideal distance scores, or the regression including real and ideal distance scores

Table 4-40 Significant Results of Regression Analyses for H1 and H2

DISTANCE SCORE	Athletic Beh	Social Comm	Prosocial Beh	Consumer Beh	Overall Beh	Tattoo & Earring	Andro & Drugs
Real Athletic	1 3	3	3		1 3		
Real Behavior							
Real Friend							
Real Job	1 3		1		1 3		
Real Physical			4 6		4	3	
Real Romantic							
Real Scholastic							
Real Social							
Ideal Athletic	6				6	5 6	
Ideal Behavior							
Ideal Friend							
Ideal Job							
Ideal Physical							
Ideal Romantic		5				3	
Ideal Scholastic							
Ideal Social							

1 – Significant negative relationship found in regression for real distance scores
2 – Significant negative relationship found in regression for ideal distance scores
3 – Significant negative relationship found in regression for real and ideal distance scores
4 – Significant positive relationship found in regression for real distance scores (opposite direction as predicted)
5 – Significant positive relationship found in regression for ideal distance scores (opposite direction as predicted)
6 – Significant positive relationship found in regression for real and ideal distance scores (opposite direction as predicted)

As indicated in the above table, the proximity between real athletic self-concept and the hero's athletic image and the proximity between real job competence self-concept and the hero's job competence have the most significant relationships with the role modeling indexes. This is particularly true for athletic behaviors, prosocial behaviors, and overall behaviors, indexes with which both athletic and job distance scores had significant relationships. Given the relevance of athletic performance in rating the job competence of sports heroes, these results indicate the importance of athletics, the athletic self-concept, and the athletic accomplishment of a sports hero in determining role

modeling behaviors of that hero Additionally these results indicate the importance of the distance between the real self-concept and the sports hero over the distance between the ideal self and the sports hero in determining role modeling behaviors In other words, these adolescents were more likely to role model their sports heroes based on a close proximity between their heroes and who they really perceive themselves to be, not on who they would like to be These adolescents indicated role modeling of athletes who were like themselves, not athletes who represented their ideal Of all the ideal distance scores, only the distance between ideal romantic self-concept and the image of the hero in romantic behaviors had a significant negative relationship with any of the role modeling indexes/variables These relationships came with indexes/variables dealing with non-athletic behaviors (social communications getting a tattoo or earring)

Two of the role modeling indexes/variables (consumer behaviors taking Andro or drugs) did not have significant relationships with any of the distance scores real or ideal Therefore subjects in this study indicated a close proximity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero did not correlate with their role modeling intentions for these behaviors. However there is another potential explanation for these results. Both of these dependent variables (consumer behaviors and taking Andro) had relatively low mean scores (consumer behaviors = 2 27 Andro = 1 81) and low variances (consumer behaviors = 93, Andro = 1 38) Low mean scores for a role modeling variable and low variances for that variable would make it difficult to find significant relationships with any of the distance scores In other words because most of the subjects reported that they did not role model their sports heroes in these two areas and there was little variation in these results across the subjects congruity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero would not be a significant predictor these two behaviors

Summary of Results of H1 and H2

Several general observations can be made about the results of these regression analyses. First, all of the R^2 scores even those associated with significant F scores are fairly low While R^2 scores of less than .5 are often looked upon with skepticism, scores as low as those found in the described regression analyses (ranging from .11 to .22) can be considered marginal in terms of the relationships between the independent variables and their dependent variable. In other words, while several significant effects were found, it is questionable as to the amount of importance these results truly represent If nothing else..it can be stated with confidence that the independent variables (distance scores) have limited relationships with the dependent variables (role modeling), and therefore these distance scores, while contributing factors to role modeling, are not likely the primary predictors for role modeling behaviors

Second, two of the dependent variables, marketing behaviors and Andro use were not significantly related to any of the self-concept distance scores Therefore, in this study, these role modeling behaviors cannot be predicted from real or ideal distance scores

Third more real distance scores than ideal distance scores were found to be significantly predictive In fact the ideal distance score that most often had a significant relationship with role modeling behaviors..ideal athletic distance, had a relationship in the opposite direction predicted by the hypothesis, indicating that the smaller the distance between the participant's ideal self-concept and his assessment of the athlete s athletic abilities, the less likely he was to role model that sports hero s behaviors The only other ideal distance score that had a significant relationship with any of the role modeling indexes/variables is ideal romantic distance Therefore little if any support was found for H2 This is further confirmed by the marginal impact the ideal distance scores have on the regression analyses which include both real and ideal distance scores In other words,

when real and ideal distance scores were placed in one regression to examine their relative predictive values, real distance scores were identified as the stronger predictors of role modeling. The distance between ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero apparently has little relationship with role modeling of sports heroes for these subjects. Instead, attention should be turned to real distance scores and role modeling.

Fourth, the real distance scores that most frequently had significant relationships with the role modeling indexes/variables were real athletic distance and real job distance. Both of these distance scores relate to the athletic performance of sports heroes, and for this study these areas of self-concept have shown the greatest relationship with role modeling behaviors. These two distance scores, real athletic distance and real job distance, both were significantly related to prosocial behaviors, athletic behaviors, and overall behaviors. Real physical distance also was significantly related to some role modeling indexes, but this relationship was in the opposite direction predicted in H1 and H2. Perhaps the close proximity between real physical self-concept and the physical image of the sports hero indicates a high level of satisfaction with one's physical appearance. Therefore, subjects with a high level of satisfaction might be less inclined to try to improve their physical appearance and physical self-concept by modeling their sports hero. However, this positive relationship between physical distance scores and role modeling is in the opposite direction as predicted for this research and therefore is not supportive of the hypotheses of this study.

Finally, in summary, this study shows limited support for H1 and negligible, if any, support for H2. For H1, the closer the subjects perceived themselves to be to their sports heroes in two areas, athletics and job competence, the more likely these subjects were to role model their sports heroes. The relationships between these two distance scores, real athletic distance and real job distance, were found for prosocial behaviors, athletic behaviors, and an overall measure of behaviors. The proximity between real athletic self-concept and the athletic image of the sports hero (real athletic distance) also

was significantly related with role modeling social communications behaviors Additionally real physical distance, or the subjects' perceptions of how similar they were physically to their sports hero had a minimally significant relationship with role modeling the behaviors of getting a tattoo or an earring like one s sports hero The more similar the subjects thought they looked physically to their sports hero, the more likely they were to get a tattoo or earring like their sports hero Given the ties such behaviors have to external physical appearance this relationship to real physical distance scores is not surprising. However, for all the relationships found to support H1 the low R^2 statistics are notable, indicating that distance scores are a relatively weak predictor of role modeling behaviors in this study

Domain Importance and Distance Worth

Domain Importance Scores

For the tests of H3 and H4, the measured construct of domain importance was used in addition to distance scores and role modeling indexes/variables These domain importance scores were collected from Harter's Test of Domain Importance as part of the Self-Concept Inventory The results of the test of domain importance are detailed in the following table Domain importance scores are listed by domain in descending order, from highest mean score (most important domain) to lowest mean score (least important domain) (4 = very important to me, 1 = not important to me)

Table 4-41 Domain Importance of Self-Concept

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Scholastic	172	3.4331	.7050
Friendship	172	3.2820	.8060
Job competence	172	3.2209	.8275
Romantic	172	3.1599	.7661
Behavior	172	3.0640	.7327
Athletic	172	3.0029	.7975
Social	172	2.9884	.7294
Physical	172	2.9564	.7644

Minimum = 1 Maximum = 4

Although there is not much variance among the means of all the domain importance scores, the order of importance and respective mean scores should be noted. The scholastic domain has the highest domain score (mean = 3.43), followed by the domain for close friendship (mean = 3.28). The domain with the lowest domain importance score is the domain of physical appearance (mean = 2.96). However, all domain importance mean scores are fairly close to one another, and, given the relatively large standard deviations for each domain importance score, there does not appear to be an overwhelming difference between the importance of the individual domains.

Although not crucial to this study, it should be noted that mean scores for domain importance ranged from 2.96 to 3.43, indicating that all domains of self-concept were rated as relatively important to subjects in this study. These subjects were obviously concerned with all areas of self-concept. For the purpose of further analysis, these domain importance scores were all divided by four, reducing them to a scale ranging from .25 to 1. An explanation and description of this process can be found in the preceding Methods chapter. The reduced score means, which represent the same values as the raw score means, are detailed in the following table. (1 = very important to me; .25 = not important to me)

Table 4-42 Reduced Domain Importance

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Scholastic	172	.85828	.17624
Friendship	172	.82049	.20149
Job competence	172	.80523	.20689
Romantic	172	.78997	.19152
Behavior	172	.76599	.18317
Athletic	172	.75073	.19937
Social	172	.74709	.18235
Physical	172	.73910	.19111

Minimum = .25 Maximum = 1

Distance Worth Scores

While the domain importance scores in themselves are useful tools to better understand adolescent behavior and self-concept for this study, domain importance scores were used along with distance scores to create a new construct By incorporating both distance scores for each domain and the importance of each of those domains, it was hoped that this new construct, distance worth, would serve as a strong predictive factor for the role modeling behaviors for this study Distance worth scores were calculated for both real self-concept and ideal self-concept across all eight domains resulting in 16 new variables for analysis.

To calculate distance worth scores the individual distance scores were divided by the normalized domain important scores Accordingly eight scores have been calculated using real distance scores (real distance worth scores) and eight scores have been calculated using ideal distance scores (ideal distance worth scores) These scores are the independent variables in the regression analyses testing H3 and H4 The distance scores were divided instead of multiplied by domain importance scores due to the negative relationship proposed between distance scores and role modeling. This is in contrast to the positive relationship proposed between domain importance and role modeling Therefore to create this new construct (distance worth scores) the variables were divided

to invert the relationship between domain importance and role modeling. In doing so, those distance scores with higher domain importance scores increase less than those with lower domain importance scores. A further explanation and description of this process is found in the preceding Methods chapter.

Real and ideal distance worth scores, listed by domain in descending order of the domain mean scores, are detailed in the following table.

Table 4-43 Distance Worth Scores (Real and Ideal) of Self-Concept to Sports Hero, Listed by Domain

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Ideal Social Distance Worth	168	5.9853	9.2829
Ideal Athletic Distance Worth	169	6.0334	9.7188
Ideal Friendship Distance Worth	171	7.2283	9.6769
Ideal Romantic Distance Worth	171	7.6037	9.9812
Ideal Physical Distance Worth	167	7.7704	11.1627
Ideal Job Distance Worth	168	8.1672	14.2562
Real Social Distance Worth	168	8.6726	8.7455
Real Job Distance Worth	168	9.2197	12.1188
Ideal Behavior Distance Worth	168	9.2567	11.6727
Real Athletic Distance Worth	169	9.5646	11.5895
Real Scholastic Distance Worth	170	9.5921	9.1738
Real Friendship Distance Worth	171	9.5953	12.6877
Ideal Scholastic Distance Worth	170	10.4391	13.3187
Real Behavior Distance Worth	168	10.9579	12.7936
Real Romantic Distance Worth	171	11.7015	13.4617
Real Physical Distance Worth	168	12.3672	15.6517

Results for Hypothesis III and Hypothesis IV

Procedures for testing H3 and H4 were similar to the testing of H1 and H2, and the description of these procedures is similar to that for H1 and H2.

The third hypothesis (H3) predicted a negative relationship between real distance worth and role modeling intentions. Therefore, it was expected to find a negative and

significant relationship between the individual indexes/variables of role modeling and the real distance worth scores To test this, a separate regression analysis was done for each of the four role modeling indexes the overall role modeling index, and the individual variables TATT (getting a tattoo or earring like one s hero) and ANDRO (using Andro or drugs like one s hero) For each of these regression analyses, the role modeling index/variable served as the dependent variable while each of the eight real distance worth scores for the eight domains comprised the independent variables Therefore seven separate regression analyses were done to test H3

The fourth hypothesis (H4) predicted a negative relationship between ideal distance worth and role modeling intentions. The regression analyses completed to test this hypothesis were identical to those done for H3, except ideal distance worth scores were used as the independent variables instead of real distance worth scores

A third group of regression analyses were done that included both real distance worth scores and ideal distance worth scores These analyses, which address both H3 and H4, were the same as those done for H1 and H2 using all 16 real and ideal distance scores..except that the 16 distance worth scores (eight real distance worth, eight ideal distance worth) were used as the independent variables for each of the seven regression equations For each equation, one of the four role modeling indexes, the overall role modeling index or the role modeling variable ANDRO or TATT served as the independent variable. As with the regression analyses done for H1 and H2 by including all distance worth scores as independent variables these regression analyses helped to determine whether real or ideal distance worth scores were stronger predictors of each individual role modeling index/behavior Additionally these regression analyses should create a more predictive regression equation for each of the role modeling indexes/variables by accounting for a larger percentage of the variance of each of these independent variables In other words, this should increase the R^2 of each regression analysis Finally, because the exclusion of important predictor variables can drastically

affect the results of regression analysis, it was hoped that including all the distance worth scores (real and ideal) would increase the prospect of achieving statistically significant results (Licht 1995)

The results of all of the regression analyses for these two hypotheses are detailed in the following tables The tables are organized by dependent variable (role modeling index/variable), not by hypotheses. Therefore, all three regression analyses for each of the seven dependent variables are grouped together A more general discussion of the individual hypotheses follows these results. For each of the significant regression analyses that produced a significant F-value (p less than 05) one table details both the overall significance of the regression (including the R and R^2 values and the F-value) and the significance of the separate independent variables (distance worth scores). Following each table is a description of the significant relationship(s) between the independent variable(s) and the role modeling index/variable This includes the Beta coefficient for each relationship (For each relationship, "*" indicates significance at p less than 05 and "**" indicates significance at p less than 01)

For those regressions whose F Statistic is not significant at the 05 level, only a brief text description of the analysis is given In the proceeding section, for each role modeling index/variable examined in this research the regression analysis with only real distance worth scores is explained first, followed by the regression analysis with only ideal distance worth scores. The regression analysis with both real and ideal distance worth scores is described last for each index/behavior

Following the tables of the separate regression analyses, one overall table summarizes the results of these analyses Thus table indicates which role modeling indexes/variables were significantly related to the distance worth scores and which particular distance worth scores had significant relationships with each of these indexes/variables.

Prosocial Behaviors

Table 4-44 Regression Analysis for Real Self Worth Distance Scores on Prosocial Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	2.796	143		19.505	000
Real Athletic Dist Worth	.019	009	177	2.043	.043
Real Behavior Dist Worth	007	008	.086	945	346
Real Friend Dist Worth	016	008	159	1.921	057
Real Job Dist Worth	016	011	140	1.413	160
Real Physical Dist Worth	012	006	174	1.892	061
Real Romantic Dist Worth	010	008	120	-1.184	238
Real Scholastic Dist Worth	009	012	078	-.779	.437
Real Social Dist Worth	-.009	013	074	.735	463

R = 347
R Square = 121
F = 2.488
Signficance of F 015

The only distance worth score with a significant relationship with prosocial behaviors was real athletic distance worth (Beta = 17*)

Ideal distance worth No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance worth scores on prosocial behaviors ($p > .05$)

Real and ideal distance worth. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real and ideal distance worth scores on prosocial behaviors ($p > .05$) Note that the inclusion of ideal distance worth scores eliminated the significant relationship between real athletic distance worth scores and prosocial behaviors

Athletic Behaviors

Table 4-45 Regression Analysis of Real Self-Worth Distance Scores on Athletic Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	3.581	.136		26.269	.000
Real Athletic Dist Worth	.025	.009	-.252	2.951	.004
Real Behavior Dist Worth	.000	.007	.001	.013	.989
Real Friend Dist Worth	.001	.008	.018	.185	.853
Real Job Dist Worth	-.015	.011	.140	1.421	.158
Real Physical Dist Worth	.005	.006	.081	.885	.378
Real Romantic Dist Worth	.005	.008	.062	.618	.538
Real Scholastic Dist Worth	.004	.011	.041	.421	.674
Real Social Dist Worth	.008	.012	.069	.688	.492

R = .351
R Square = .123
F = 2.561
Significance of F = .012

The only distance worth score with a significant relationship with athletic behaviors was real athletic distance worth (Beta = - .25**)

Ideal distance worth No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance worth scores on athletic behaviors ($p > .05$)

Table 4-46 Regression Analysis for Real and Ideal Self-Worth Distance Scores on Athletic Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	3 619	143		25 232	000
Real Athletic Dist Worth	-039	010	393	-4 041	000
Real Behavior Dist Worth	000	008	000	003	998
Real Friend Dist Worth	001	010	013	109	914
Real Job Dist Worth	017	014	166	1.246	215
Real Physical Dist Worth	002	007	023	220	026
Real Romance Dist Worth	002	010	029	237	813
Real Scholastic Dist Worth	007	013	064	533	595
Real Social Dist Worth	004	013	034	307	759
Ideal Athletic Dist Worth	029	012	289	2 342	021
Ideal Behavior Dist Worth	005	009	068	542	589
Ideal Friend Dist Worth	010	013	094	748	456
Ideal Job Dist Worth	004	013	043	277	782
Ideal Physical Dist Worth	005	010	055	497	620
Ideal Romance Dist Worth	010	015	095	661	509
Ideal Scholastic Dist Worth	005	009	066	545	587
Ideal Social Dist Worth	003	013	026	216	830

R = 434
R Square 188
F = 1 968
Significance of F = 018

The distance worth scores with significant relationships with athletic behaviors were real athletic distance worth (Beta = 39**) and ideal athletic distance worth (Beta = 28*, NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted) Note that the inclusion of real distance worth scores affected the relationships between ideal distance worth scores and athletic behaviors

Social Communication

Real distance worth No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real distance worth scores on social communication ($p > .05$).

Table 4-47 Regression Analysis for Ideal Self Worth Distance Scores on Social Communication

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.132	.120		26.007	.000
Ideal Athletic Dist Worth	.005	.011	.053	.495	.622
Ideal Behavior Dist Worth	.005	.008	.054	.560	.576
Ideal Friend Dist Worth	.013	.011	.120	1.148	.253
Ideal Job Dist Worth	.005	.010	.062	.493	.623
Ideal Physical Dist Worth	.004	.008	.045	.480	.632
Ideal Romantic Dist Worth	.031	.012	.302	2.501	.013
Ideal Scholastic Dist Worth	.007	.008	.098	.956	.340
Ideal Social Dist Worth	.002	.012	.020	.181	.856

R = .318
R Square = .101
F = 2.042
Significance of F = .045

The only distance worth score with a significant relationship with social communication was ideal romantic distance worth (Beta = .30*)

Table 4-42 Regression Analysis for Real and Ideal Self Worth Distance Scores on Social Communication

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	3.240	.144		22.551	.000
Real Athletic Dist Worth	.033	.010	.324	3.321	.001
Real Behavior Dist Worth	.005	.008	.064	.607	.545
Real Friend Dist Worth	.009	.010	.115	.931	.354
Real Job Dist Worth	.000	.014	.004	-.027	.979
Real Physical Dist Worth	.004	.007	.061	.580	.563
Real Romantic Dist Worth	-.002	.010	.021	.173	.863
Real Scholastic Dist Worth	.002	.014	.018	.144	.886
Real Social Dist Worth	.010	.013	.082	.740	.461
Ideal Athletic Dist Worth	.011	.013	.112	.904	.367
Ideal Behavior Dist Worth	.005	.009	.059	.531	.596
Ideal Friend Dist Worth	.007	.013	.064	.510	.611
Ideal Job Dist Worth	.006	.013	.076	.489	.626
Ideal Physical Dist Worth	.011	.010	.119	1.083	.281
Ideal Romantic Dist Worth	.036	.015	.354	2.444	.016
Ideal Scholastic Dist Worth	.008	.009	.105	.871	.385
Ideal Social Dist Worth	.006	.013	.055	.452	.652

R = .318
R Square = .101
F = 2.042
Significance of F = .045

The distance worth scores with significant relationships with social communication were real athletic distance worth (Beta = .32**) and ideal romantic distance worth (Beta = .35*). Note that the inclusion of ideal distance worth scores affected the relationships between real distance worth scores and social communication.

Consumer Behaviors

Real distance worth. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real distance worth scores on consumer behaviors ($p > .05$).

Ideal distance worth. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance worth scores on consumer behaviors ($p > .05$).

Real and ideal distance worth. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real and ideal distance worth scores on consumer behaviors ($p > .05$)

Overall Behaviors

Table 4-49 Regression Analysis for Real Self Worth Distance Scores on Overall Behaviors.

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	2.990	.104		28.643	.000
Real Athletic Dist Worth	.020	.007	.262	3.102	.002
Real Behavior Dist Worth	.003	.005	.048	.542	.588
Real Friend Dist Worth	.005	.006	.085	.880	.380
Real Job Dist Worth	.012	.008	.144	1.485	.140
Real Physical Dist Worth	.009	.005	.166	1.839	.068
Real Romantic Dist Worth	.006	.006	.097	.977	.330
Real Scholastic Dist Worth	.003	.008	.039	.397	.692
Real Social Dist Worth	.005	.009	.056	.569	.570

R = .372
R Square = .138
F = 2.947
Significance of F = .004

The only distance worth score with a significant relationship with overall behaviors was real athletic distance worth (Beta = .28**)

Ideal distance worth. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance worth scores on overall behaviors ($p > .05$)

Table 4-50 Regression Analysis for Real and Ideal Self Worth Distance Scores on Overall Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	3 645	108		28 073	000
Real Athletic Dist Worth	028	007	364	3 777	000
Real Behavior Dist Worth	002	006	035	336	737
Real Friend Dist Worth	005	008	088	659	511
Real Job Dist Worth	013	011	157	1 186	236
Real Physical Dist Worth	004	005	080	775	440
Real Romantic Dist Worth	002	007	037	309	758
Real Scholastic Dist Worth	001	010	008	065	948
Real Social Dist Worth	004	010	043	394	694
Ideal Athletic Dist Worth	013	009	173	1 418	159
Ideal Behavior Dist Worth	004	007	- 057	524	601
Ideal Friend Dist Worth	002	010	026	214	831
Ideal Job Dist Worth	003	010	055	353	724
Ideal Physical Dist Worth	005	007	073	672	503
Ideal Romantic Dist Worth	013	011	166	1 165	246
Ideal Scholastic Dist Worth	007	007	123	1 027	306
Ideal Social Dist Worth	002	010	023	190	850

R = 447
R Square = 199
F = 2 149
Significance of F = 009

The only distance worth score with a significant relationship with overall behaviors was real athletic distance worth (Beta = - 38**) Note that no change resulted from the inclusion of ideal distance worth scores

Tattoo or Earring Modeling Behaviors

Real distance worth. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real distance worth scores on tattoo or earring modeling behaviors (p > 05)

Table 4-51 Regression Analysis for Ideal Self-Worth Distance Scores on Tattoo or Earring Modeling Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	1.542	.103		12.999	.000
Ideal Athletic Dist Worth	.018	.009	.203	1.919	.057
Ideal Behavior Dist Worth	.002	.007	.024	.255	.799
Ideal Friend Dist Worth	.020	.010	.216	2.101	.037
Ideal Job Dist Worth	.010	.009	.134	1.070	.285
Ideal Physical Dist Worth	.002	.007	.026	.286	.776
Ideal Romantic Dist Worth	.009	.010	.096	.816	.416
Ideal Scholastic Dist Worth	-.005	.006	-.076	-.758	.450
Ideal Social Dist Worth	.016	.010	.169	1.596	.113

R = .447
R Square = .199
F = 2.149
Significance of F = .009

The only distance worth score with a significant relationship with tattoo or earring modeling behaviors was ideal friend distance worth (Beta = .21*, NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted)

Table 4-52 Regression Analysis for Real and Ideal Self Worth Distance Scores on Tattoo or Earring Modeling Behaviors

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	1.336	.124		10.794	.000
Real Athletic Dist Worth	.012	.008	.133	1.388	.167
Real Behavior Dist Worth	.004	.007	.056	.548	.585
Real Friend Dist Worth	.000	.009	.001	-.012	.990
Real Job Dist Worth	.006	.012	.063	.480	.632
Real Physical Dist Worth	.016	.006	.269	2.617	.010
Real Romantic Dist Worth	.011	.008	.257	2.152	.033
Real Scholastic Dist Worth	.009	.011	.101	.850	.397
Real Social Dist Worth	.006	.012	.058	.538	.597
Ideal Athletic Dist Worth	.025	.011	.287	2.359	.020
Ideal Behavior Dist Worth	.003	.008	.036	.338	.742
Ideal Friend Dist Worth	.023	.012	.247	2.004	.047
Ideal Job Dist Worth	.006	.011	.087	.563	.574
Ideal Physical Dist Worth	.006	.008	.079	.735	.464
Ideal Romantic Dist Worth	.026	.013	.288	2.030	.044
Ideal Scholastic Dist Worth	.007	.008	.106	.890	.375
Ideal Social Dist Worth	-.012	.011	.127	1.060	.291

R = .455
R Square = .207
F = 2.247
Significance of F = .006

The distance worth scores with significant relationships with tattoo or earring modeling behaviors were real physical distance worth (Beta = .26**), real romantic distance worth (Beta = .25*, NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted), ideal athletic distance worth (Beta = .28* NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted) ideal friend distance worth (Beta = .24* NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted), and ideal romantic distance worth (Beta = .28*, NOTE This relationship is the opposite direction as predicted) Note that the inclusion of both real and ideal distance worth scores affected the relationships between both real distance worth scores and ideal distance worth scores with tattoo or earring modeling behaviors.

Using Andro Modeling Behaviors

Real distance worth. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real distance worth scores on using Andro modeling behaviors ($p > .05$)
Ideal distance worth. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for ideal distance worth scores on using Andro modeling behaviors ($p > .05$)
Real and ideal distance worth. No significant relationships were found in the regression analysis for real and ideal distance worth scores on using Andro modeling behaviors ($p > .05$)

Summary Chart of Significant Results of Regression Analyses for H3 and H4

The results of the above regression analyses are summarized in the following table. A number in a cell indicates a significant relationship was found between that role modeling index/variable and the corresponding distance worth score. The particular regressions in which the significant relationships were found are explained by the key beneath the table. In other words, the numbers indicate whether the relationship was found in the regression including only real distance worth scores, the regression including only ideal worth distance scores, or the regression including both real and ideal distance worth scores.

Table 4-53 Significant Results of Regression Analyses for H3 and H4

DISTANCE WORTH SCORE	Athletic Beh	Social Comm	Prosocial Beh	Consumer Beh	Overall Beh	Tattoo & Earring	Andro & Drugs
Real Athletic	1 3	3	1 3		1 3		
Real Behavior							
Real Friend							
Real Job							
Real Physical						3	
Real Romantic						6	
Real Scholastic							
Real Social							
Ideal Athletic	6					6	
Ideal Behavior							
Ideal Friend						5 6	
Ideal Job							
Ideal Physical							
Ideal Romantic		2 3				6	
Ideal Scholastic							
Ideal Social							

1 = Significant relationship found in regression for real distance worth score
2 = Significant relationship found in regression for ideal distance worth scores
3 = Significant relationship found in regression for real and ideal distance worth scores
4 = Significant positive relationship found in regression for real distance worth scores (opposite direction as predicted)
5 = Significant positive relationship found in regression for ideal distance worth scores (opposite direction as predicted)
6 = Significant positive relationship found in regression for real and ideal distance worth scores (opposite direction as predicted)

As indicated in the table above the results for H3 and H4 are similar to those for H1 and H2. However, fewer significant negative relationships were found between role modeling behaviors and distance worth scores (H3 and H4) than were found between role modeling and distance scores (H1 and H2). Because distance worth scores combined the distance between self-concept and the image of the sports hero for a domain of self-concept (distance scores) with the importance of that domain (domain importance score) these results indicate the incorporation of domain importance scores actually weakened the relationships between distance scores and role modeling. In other words,

just because a domain of self-concept was important did not make subjects more likely to role model their sports heroes based on self-concept congruity with their sports hero in that domain. Domain importance does not appear to be a predictor of role modeling a sports hero, and the incorporation of distance scores did not add to the predictive nature of the distance scores between self-concept and the image of the sports hero.

More real distance worth scores than ideal distance worth scores had significant relationships with role modeling behaviors. As with the results for H1, real athletic distance worth had the greatest number of significant relationships with role modeling. Real physical distance worth had a significant relationship with the role modeling variable for getting a tattoo or earring like one's hero, a non-athletic role modeling behavior and an obvious link with the distance worth score for physical appearance. Unlike H1, job distance worth was not significantly related with role modeling.

For H4, ideal romantic distance worth was the only ideal distance worth score with a significant negative relationship with role modeling. This relationship came with the index for role modeling social communication. Three domains of ideal distance worth actually had positive relationships with some role modeling behaviors, the opposite direction as predicted in by H4. As with the results for H2, which found little support for significant negative relationships between role modeling and ideal distance scores, little support was found for any significant negative relationship between role modeling and ideal distance worth scores. Therefore, the incorporation of domain importance scores did not increase the predictive nature of the congruity between the ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero. As indicated by the above chart, real distance worth scores are more predictive of role modeling behaviors than ideal distance worth scores.

Summary of Results of H3 and H4

Again, several clarifications can be made about the data analysis related to these hypotheses. First, the support for both of these hypotheses is limited. This is particularly true for H4 (ideal distance worth scores). Of all the regression analyses only ideal romantic distance worth was found to have a significant negative relationship with any of the role modeling behaviors (social communication) and this relationship is limited. Additionally, three ideal distance worth scores had significant relationships in the opposite direction as predicted. Therefore, it can be concluded that ideal distance worth scores were not predictive of role modeling behaviors for the subjects in this study as predicted.

Greater support was found for H3 (real distance worth scores), selected real distance worth scores were significantly related to four role modeling indexes (prosocial behaviors, athletic behaviors, social communication, and overall behaviors) and one variable (getting a tattoo or earring like one's sports hero). However, of all eight domains of real distance worth, only two real distance worth scores, real athletic distance worth and real physical distance worth, had significant negative relationships with any of these indexes/variable. Distance worth scores from the other domains were not significantly related to role modeling behaviors. These results are similar to those for H1, which did not incorporate domain importance. The most notable differences between the results for the two hypotheses came in the domain of job competence. Unlike real job distance scores, real job distance worth scores were not significantly related to any of the role modeling indexes/behaviors. This would indicate that adding measures of the domain importance of job competence did not help predict role modeling.

Placed into greater perspective, few significant relationships were found for all the real distance worth scores. Not surprisingly, the limited support for H3 is found almost

exclusively with real athletic distance worth, a domain commonly associated with sports heroes

Perhaps more importantly, the use of domain importance did not add to the predictive nature of the distance between self-concept and the image of the sports hero The results for H3 were similar to those for H1, indicating that domain importance did not help to predict role modeling behaviors in this study Therefore, study conclusions will instead focus on the predictive nature of the congruity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero

Summary of Results

Limited support was found for H1 and H3, indicating that congruity between real self-concept and the image of the sports hero may be a factor in determining role modeling of sports heroes for the participants of this study This has been supported for only a few domains of self concept and the relationships with the stated indexes/variables of role modeling behaviors are fairly weak Therefore, real self-concept scores can be considered only limited factors in predicting role modeling behaviors of sports heroes

Almost no support was found for H2 and H4, indicating that congruity between ideal self-concept and the image of the sports hero is not likely a factor in determining role modeling of sports heroes for the participants of this study While a limited number of ideal distance scores and ideal distance worth scores had significant relationships with a limited number of role modeling indexes/variables, there were not enough significant relationships to consider these two constructs as statistically significant predictors of behavioral role modeling of sports heroes

Finally the incorporation of domain importance scores did little to help predict role modeling of sports heroes While it was predicted that incorporating domain

importance scores with distance scores would create more accurate predictors of role modeling thus did not appear true for this research, as evidenced by the lack of significant results found for H3 and H4 as compared to H1 and H2

The final chapter, Conclusions, addresses the stated results discusses the importance and relevance of these results, and explains potential reasons these results were found Additionally, weaknesses of the study and recommendations for future research are addressed

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSIONS

In drawing conclusions about the results of this research, the following topics are addressed inferences made from the descriptive statistics, including reported images of sports heroes, adolescent choice of sports heroes, and reported role modeling statistics, results of H1 and H2 and the importance of real and ideal distance scores, results of H3 and H4 and the importance of real and ideal distance worth scores, and study limitations and recommendations for future research

Descriptive Statistics

Although the analyses of descriptive statistics do not pertain directly to the hypotheses of this research this information still should be reviewed to gain insight into adolescents' choices of sports heroes and the areas in which these adolescents are most likely to model their sports heroes This provides a greater understanding of American sports heroes and their relationship to the adolescent audience

Image of the Sports Hero

Due to the negative information available about many popular athletes in some areas of their lives and the potential impact such information might have on fans' views of these popular athletes, it is particularly interesting to review the respondents' reported images of their sports heroes While the rated mean image of sports heroes was fairly high in all eight domains ranging from 2 90 to 3 32 on a scale of 1 to 4, the ordered rank of such scores may give greater insight into adolescent choices of sports heroes The

highest two rated domains were the social domain (3.32) and the athletic domain (3.31), while the lowest two were the behavior domain (3.02) and the scholastic domain (2.90). This is not surprising, given the frequent reports of negative behaviors of athletes, collegiate athletic/academic scandals, and similar negative behaviors. It is interesting to note, however, that the social domain of athletes rated as high as the athletic domain, indicating that these subjects viewed sports heroes as more than merely supreme athletes. The high domain scores in the romantic domain (3.19) and the friend domain (3.13) reinforce this concept.

The adolescents from this study reported a fairly high opinion of their sports heroes in a variety of areas beyond athletics. One potential explanation for this could be the invasive nature of media coverage of popular athletes, allowing sports fans to learn more about their sports heroes in a variety of different areas outside of actual athletic performance. Because the mean scores for each of the eight domains were fairly close, few general statements can be made about the relative rankings of the domain scores. However, the fact that the behavior and scholastic domains had the lowest mean scores does support a popular notion that many American athletes are portrayed as less than exemplary students and often display negative behaviors. In other words, while these adolescents rated their sports heroes as competent in all areas, they did seemingly indicate that their sports heroes are not as competent in behavioral and scholastic areas as they are in other areas.

Relationship between Hero Image and Self-Concept

A more informative means of viewing the rated image scores of the sports hero is to examine the calculated distance scores, which examines the relative relationships with individual self-concept. However, the calculated distance scores do not reflect negative values, and therefore do not tell us whether the image of the sports hero is less than or greater than the self image in a particular domain. Distance scores only show the

absolute value of the distance Therefore, it is first important to review whether the sports heroes' images were rated as higher or lower than individual self-concept.

For seven of the eight domains, the image of the sports hero fell in between the real self-concept and the ideal self-concept. In other words these adolescents viewed their respective sports heroes as more competent or having a better image than themselves, but the heroes did not quite measure up to their ideal self The hero did not represent an ideal, but he did represent a step in that direction from the real self Given the high image of these athletes in juxtaposition to the real self-concepts, sports heroes do represent logical choices as role models for these adolescents and a logical means for moving their real self toward their ideal self

The only domain in which the image of the sports hero fell below the real self-concept is the scholastic domain Obviously, these adolescents did not perceive their sports heroes as ideal students or even of equal competence as themselves in the classroom This could be attributed to the strong educational background of the majority of the subjects for this study, as most of the surveyed adolescents attended a private college preparatory school or a selective public school It would be expected that participants would not look to their sports heroes as role models in the scholastic area. Interestingly this expectation was not fully met, since the role modeling variable STUDY (studying harder because of one s sports hero) did receive a fairly high mean score (2 82 on a scale from 1 to 4) indicating subjects did consider their sports hero as a potential role model for academic affairs Conversely, the role modeling variable COL (going to the same college as one s sports hero) received a low mean score (1 62), the third lowest score of all role modeling variables

It is clear that the image of the selected sports heroes typically fell in-between the real self concept and the ideal self concept Using the calculated distance scores, these relationships can be viewed in terms of the actual distances for each domain. This indicates exactly which particular domain of self-concept, for both real and ideal self was

closest in distance to the image of the sports hero In other words, this explains in which domains the adolescent felt closest to his particular sports hero From this information, one can gain insight into the perceived similarity of today s sports heroes to adolescent fans and perhaps even understand why certain types of popular athletes are chosen as sports heroes.

Not surprisingly, the ideal athletic distance score had the lowest mean score (3 70) In other words these subjects viewed their sports heroes as closer to their ideal self in athletics than for any other domain of self-concept, real or ideal According to these results, the sports hero, first and foremost, embodies ideal athletic abilities, confirming the notion that sports heroes must be supreme athletes above all else (good looks, good behavior, etc) to be considered sports heroes. Although the media may stress a variety of characteristics of popular athletes, these adolescents placed a premium on athletic performance. This emphasis should help to further define the current state of the evolving modern American sports hero

The relative order of the 16 calculated distance scores (eight real distance, eight ideal distance) gives insight into the qualities of the modern American sports hero Many theorists have suggested that the sports hero has lost his luster, largely due to invasive media coverage, and this heroic figure no longer represents society's ideal However, such a sentiment is not wholly supported by this research. In fact, according to the calculated distance scores the sports heroes chosen for this research were more closely aligned to the ideal self-concept than the real self-concept Of the 16 distance scores, the six scores with the smallest mean score (lower score equaling closer proximity between hero image and self-concept) were ideal distance scores. The ideal distance scores for athletic ability, physical appearance, and job competence all domains related to athletic and physical characteristics, were three of the four smallest distance scores Such proximity between the ideal self and the sports hero in these domains was expected due to the athletic excellence and the physical appearance of the sports hero achieved from years

of training and competition. However, the low ideal distance scores in the social, friendship, and romantic domains also indicate the ideal perceptions of sports heroes in non-athletic domains. The media, with its focus on the personalities and lifestyles of popular athletes, likely have contributed to such perceptions.

The two ideal distance scores that fell furthest down the list of the 16 distance scores were the ideal behavior distance score, ranked tenth (6.24), and the ideal scholastic distance score ranked last (8.09). As addressed earlier, this indicates that these adolescents did not necessarily choose sports heroes closely representing their ideal academic selves or, to a slightly lesser extent, their ideal behavioral selves. As many popular athletes are portrayed as poor students (dropping out of college, cheating on exams, etc.) and often engage in questionable behaviors, such results reflect the modern media portrayal of popular athletes. These adolescents appeared able to choose a sports hero who epitomizes less than ideal behavioral and academic qualities yet still displays athletic excellence and ideal social skills.

In general, the real distance scores were larger than the ideal distance scores, indicating these adolescents perceived their sports heroes as closer to who they would ideally like to be than who they actually perceive themselves to be. As with the ideal distance scores, the sports hero was closest to the real self-concept in the athletic and social domains (distance scores of 5.89 and 6.01, respectively), and, as with the ideal self, close proximity from the real self to the sports hero in these two domains appear most important in the selection of a sports hero. The real physical distance score and the real romantic distance score ranked as the last two distance scores (the highest mean scores). Upon investigation of the results of the tests for real self-concept, these high mean scores are likely a reflection of a low reported real self-concept in these two domains by the subjects of this study. These subjects reported relatively low opinions of their appearance and romantic success compared to their opinions of themselves in other domains. Because of a low reported self-concept for these subjects in the physical and romantic

domains, the distance scores for these domains were larger than the distance scores in other domains

In summary the results have indicated that adolescents have a fairly high opinion of their sports heroes according to the Likert scale measurement, consistent among most of the eight domains While many athletes have been scrutinized for negative behaviors, this was not reflected by the reported image scores for sports heroes in this study These reported images typically fell between the real self-concept and ideal self-concept for all domains except the scholastic domain, in which the image of the hero fell below the real self-concept Therefore, in all but this one domain, these sports heroes represented a step from the real self towards the ideal self Further, when examining the calculated distance scores between self-concept and the image of the sports hero, it was found that these sports heroes were closer to the ideal self concept than the real self-concept in all but two domains of self-concept. Therefore, popular media images of sports heroes that stress supreme athletic accomplishment and high social skills, but poor behavior and low academic accomplishment, seem to have been mirrored in the variations in the image scores and calculated distance scores from this study

Role Modeling

A more drastic range of scores can be found amongst the individual role modeling variable mean scores than for the mean scores for the domains of the image of the sports hero These differences in mean scores for different role modeling variables indicate that these adolescents did choose the particular areas in which they plan to model their sports heroes Instead of simply modeling all behaviors of their sports heroes at the same rate, adolescents may instead consider the individual behaviors, good and bad, and decide which they intend to model Additionally, a high variance for most of the role modeling variables supports the notion that individual adolescents make individual choices about their intentions to role model their particular sports hero, and not all adolescents will model their sports heroes in the same areas to the same extent

In reviewing the individual role modeling variables several worthwhile observations should be noted First the range on a 5 point Likert scale from the lowest rated role modeling variable (getting a tattoo or earring like one s hero = 1 44) to the highest rated role modeling variable (train harder because of one's hero = 3 84) is considerable While these adolescents appear very likely to model the training techniques of their sports hero, they are very unlikely to get a tattoo like their sports hero It is similarly unlikely that these adolescents will get the same hair style as their sports hero (HAIR = 1 46)

In more general terms, five of the six variables with the highest mean scores deal with on-the-court behaviors (training trash talking on the court, playing a particular position, training techniques, and athletic maneuvers on the court) Besides the variable dealing with trash talking (TRASH = 3 27), all of these variables deal specifically with athletic behaviors and training This indicates that these subjects value the athletic actions of their heroes above other behaviors, and often they indicated intentions to model these actions Such would be consistent with the reported ratings of the image of their sports heroes, where these subjects ranked the athletic and job performance domains as two of the highest rated domains of this image In other words, these adolescents seemed more interested with the athletic components and qualities of their sports heroes than with the many other facets of their sports heroes.

Conversely, many of the variables with the lowest mean scores deal either with negative behaviors (getting a tattoo, hairstyle, taking Andro) or major life decisions (choosing a college) It is predictable that these adolescents would not want to model their sports hero s college choice (COL = 1 62) given their relatively low opinion of the scholastic image of their sports heroes. Somewhat confusing and contradictory, however, is the relatively high mean score for the role modeling variable dealing with studying harder (STUDY = 2 82) However the choice to study harder is a much less intrusive decision than choosing a college, and this distinction may account for the vast difference

between the two variables. Therefore, while the negative behaviors, hairstyles, tattoos, etc...of sports heroes may earn heavy media attention, this coverage does not necessarily influence adolescents to role model these behaviors and characteristics

Perhaps most important to advertisers and athletic companies, the variable measuring purchase intentions of the shoes worn by one's sports hero received a low mean score (SNEAK = 1.70). The mean score was a bit higher for the variable measuring whether adolescents would buy a product endorsed by their sports hero (ENDORSE = 2.34) and higher still for the variable measuring the likelihood of an adolescent wearing the same shirt as their sports hero (SHIRT = 2.78). Still, the relatively low mean scores for these variables, particularly for buying sneakers, indicates a potential weakness in using popular sports heroes to promote and advertise products. Additionally, paying professional athletes enormous sums of money to market products should be reevaluated in terms of its effectiveness and corresponding value.

In summary, several generalizations can be suggested from the collected data on reported role modeling of sports heroes. First, adolescents do not likely model all actions of their sports heroes, but rather analyze and select those they intend to model. Second, adolescents appear more likely to model athletic behaviors than those peripheral to athletics. Besides on court trash talking, this appears particularly true for negative behaviors, potentially dangerous behaviors, consumer behaviors, and behaviors that require major life decisions. Finally, there appears to be a high level of variance for each of these role modeling variables, indicating that individual teenagers make independent and individual decisions on role modeling intentions.

This leads to the discussion of the stated hypotheses, which address the potential reasons for the variations of and motivations for role modeling behaviors.

Hypothesis I and Hypothesis II

As reviewed in the results section limited support was found for H1 which predicted a negative relationship between real distance scores and the role modeling indexes and variables Virtually no support was found for H2, which predicted a negative relationship between ideal distance scores and the role modeling indexes and variables Several topics must be addressed in the analysis of these hypotheses. First, the significant relationships should be addressed, particularly the pattern of relationships found for H1 Second, the lack of support for H2 should be addressed, and focus should be given to the relative importance of ideal self-concept versus real self-concept in determining role modeling behaviors Finally, the overall weakness of support for these hypotheses, potential reasons for these results and possible alternative explanations must be examined

The two real distance scores that produced multiple significant relationships with role modeling indexes were real athletic distance and real job distance These distance scores were significantly related to the athletic behavior index and the overall behavior index Because these distance scores deal with athletic excellence, this relationship with athletic behaviors would be expected Generally speaking, as an adolescent feels more similar in athletic competence to his sports hero he is more likely to copy the athletic behaviors of his sports hero

These two distance scores, real athletic distance and real job distance, also had significant relationships with prosocial behaviors, and athletic distance had a significant relationship with the social communications index Apparently, the proximity between real self-concept and the image of the sports hero did have some influence on role modeling in areas outside of athletic behaviors However, it is the distance scores of the athletic competence domain and the job competence domain, a domain inherently related to athletics for this study, bearing that relationship Therefore, although the perceived

proximity between real self-concept and the image of the sports hero did correlate with a wide range of role modeling behaviors, this was only true for two domains of self-concept (athletic competence and job competence). Distance scores from the other domains of self-concept did not appear to influence role modeling decisions. The perceived relationship between these adolescents and their sports heroes in domains such as scholastic achievement and friendship had no measurable influence on their intentions to role model their sports heroes. Again, it appears as though the athletic components of the sports hero were the most crucial and influential with these adolescents, and this further reinforces athletic performance as the key component of the American sports hero. Regardless of the varied images seen on television about popular sports figures, it is the most basic of functions, athletic accomplishment, which remains the most important and influential component of the sports hero.

Only one other real distance score, real physical distance, bore any significant relationship with role modeling behaviors. Real physical distance had a significant relationship with the variable for getting a tattoo or an earring like one's hero. This relationship is not surprising, as physical appearance is logically related to getting an earring or tattoo. However, it should be noted that this variable of role modeling (TATT) had a very low mean score (1.44), indicating that few of these subjects would consider modeling such behaviors at all. Additionally, real physical distance actually had a significant relationship in the opposite direction as predicted with two role modeling indexes (prosocial behaviors and overall behaviors). Contrary to the hypotheses of this research, it is possible that a close proximity between real physical self-concept and the image of the sports hero indicated a high level of self-satisfaction in one's physical appearance. As this satisfaction increased, these subjects may have been less likely to model their role models in an attempt to increase their physical self-concept. In other words, the better a subject felt about himself, the less he may have felt it necessary to imitate his sports hero in order to increase his self-concept.

Another potential explanation for this relationship is that subjects who were extremely concerned with their physical appearance may not have had great interest in prosocial behaviors. Perhaps a fixation on physical appearance represented a level of vanity that did not correlate highly with charity work and other prosocial behaviors. As a subject placed more emphasis on his appearance, he may have put less effort into prosocial behaviors. Although merely speculative and not supported in the literature review of this study, this relationship is a potential explanation for these unexpected results, one which presents a topic worthy of future research.

Therefore, while relatively few significant relationships were found between real distance scores and role modeling, it appears that these adolescents were most influenced by their perceived similarity to their sports hero in athletic areas and related job competence. Athletics related distance scores had the greatest impact on role modeling of sports heroes, and this role modeling was more likely to occur in athletics-related behaviors.

For Hypothesis *H* (ideal distance), the only relationship that supported this hypothesis was that between ideal romantic distance and the index for social communication and the variable for getting a tattoo or earring like one's hero. Again, this is a logical relationship, since both these role modeling variables relate to socially oriented, non-athletic behaviors, and such behaviors would more likely be correlated with a non-athletic domain of self-concept such as romantic appeal. It is interesting to note the positive romantic association with tattoos or earrings, an obvious reflection of the modern image of today's athletes. It would be difficult to imagine past generations viewing such behaviors in a positive light. Beyond the ideal romantic distance score, no other distance scores had significant relationships supporting H2, and one distance score, ideal athletic distance, actually had significant relationships in the opposite direction as was predicted. Therefore, H2 is not supported by the results of this research.

Even though all of the regression models produced relatively low R^2 values, looking at the relative relationships found for real and ideal distance scores with role modeling may provide insight into the motivations for adolescent role modeling of sports heroes. Interestingly, the relationships found for real distance scores were with domains of athletic and job performance, while the few relationships found for ideal distance were with the romantic domain. There is an obvious and distinct difference between these two relationships. In the first hypothesis, it was found that the closer an adolescent was to his sports hero in athletic areas or job performance related areas (which, for sports heroes, would essentially refer to athletic accomplishments), the more likely he was to role model that athlete, particularly in athletic and prosocial behaviors. However, the ideal athletic distance scores and job distance scores did not have the same significant relationships with role modeling. Therefore, while these adolescents tended to choose sports heroes that were closer to their ideal self than their real self, particularly for the athletic domain, it was conversely the close proximity with real self, not ideal self, that correlated with role modeling behaviors, particularly for athletic behaviors. Generally speaking, the adolescent might choose a sports hero who represents his athletic ideal, but if he does not perceive himself as actually being similar to this sports hero, the task of role modeling an athlete's behaviors may appear too difficult or daunting. This could be particularly true for athletic behaviors, which, due to the very nature of the sports hero, are extremely difficult to model. As an adolescent perceives himself more similar to his sports hero as an athlete, this adolescent would express more willingness to role model the athlete in these difficult behaviors due to his own sense of ability and likelihood to succeed.

Conversely, although the ideal romantic distance scores did have significant relationships with both social behaviors and getting a tattoo or earring, such social behaviors are more easily accomplished than the athletic behaviors of a sports hero. It is much easier to strive towards the ideal in these behaviors (social, tattoo or earring) than to achieve ideal athletic behaviors. In other words, while it is fairly simple for an adolescent

to either copy social behaviors of an athlete or get a tattoo or earring like his hero in order to strive towards the ideal romantic self It is much more difficult to copy physically demanding athletic behaviors of a favorite athlete when they do not perceive themselves as having similar athletic abilities as their sports hero, even if this athlete is representative of the ideal self For difficult behaviors, real distance scores are more crucial in determining role modeling intentions, indicating a component of the individual's sense of competence in those difficult areas In less difficult behaviors, ideal distance scores are more crucial as this represents an opportunity to strive toward the ideal without a fear of low competency

One questionable aspect of congruity theory addressed in the literature review was the inability of this theoretical model to predict whether real self-concept or ideal self-concept would predict purchase behaviors Furthermore, the theory did not predict when either of the two components of self-concept would be more predictive This research project can add to this understanding and provide some clarification to this aspect of congruity theory Congruity theory held true, albeit only to a limited degree, in correlating real self-concept distance scores to modeling athletic behaviors and prosocial behaviors, or behaviors that might be extremely difficult to copy without perceived competence in these areas. If the real self-concept is far from the image of the sports hero, it would likely seem extremely difficult to copy intricate athletic behaviors of the sports hero This is true for the job and athletic domains, domains that are related to the athletic performance of the sports hero Conversely, congruity theory held true, albeit to an even lesser degree, to correlate ideal self-concept distance scores to social behaviors and behaviors related to physical appearance, or behaviors not nearly as difficult to model as athletic behaviors or even prosocial behaviors This was found to be true for the romantic domain of self-concept, an area that is not necessarily crucial to the sports hero

To place this in the same language used in marketing studies, real self-concept distance scores correlate with role modeling the more utilitarian behaviors of the sports

hero those including athletics and prosocial behaviors. Ideal self-concept distance scores correlate with role modeling the less utilitarian behaviors behaviors not inherently a component of the sports hero but behaviors related to external appearance, social interactions, and popularity

This study expanded on previous marketing studies of congruity theory by subdividing self-concept into eight distinct domains Therefore, it is possible to better understand not only which types of behaviors will correlate with real or ideal distance scores but also which specific domains of distance scores will correlate with such behaviors Congruity theory was supported for real self-concept in the athletic and job domains the more utilitarian or performance related components of self-concept. These domains deal with one s perceptions of their ability to perform a function For ideal self-concept, congruity theory was supported for the romantic domain, a relatively non-performance related or utilitarian domain of self-concept Therefore, congruity theory will more likely apply to real distance scores that are utilitarian in nature and to ideal distance scores that are less utilitarian in nature.

However, despite the conclusions that can be drawn from the results of H1 and H2, it is just as important to note the overall lack of support for the predictions made for these hypotheses Although limited relationships were found between the calculated distance scores and role modeling indexes/behaviors, the distance scores did not account for the majority of these subjects' decisions of whether or not to role model their sports heroes Other prevalent figures, including peers, parents and teachers, likely had greater influence in determining behaviors for these adolescents than sports heroes

Some of the behaviors, such as taking Andro had no significant relationships with distance scores This is particularly notable given the negative publicity given to popular athletes using Andro and the potential influence this could have in encouraging adolescent athletes to use this drug Even if adolescents may learn about such performance-enhancing drugs from mass-mediated sports figures, these adolescents likely

have other motivations for deciding whether or not to use the drug Although it is fortunate to learn that these adolescents do not simply model potentially negative behaviors of their sports heroes such results also illuminate the importance of coaches, peers, and parents in guiding behaviors.

The index for consumer behaviors also had no significant relationships with any of the distance scores The perceived proximity between the real self or the ideal self and the sports hero had no significant relationship on purchase behaviors of items worn/endorsed by the sports heroes of these adolescents. Athletic and non-athletic companies spend enormous sums of money for famous athletes to endorse and promote their products yet this research indicates that using such star athletes may not influence purchase decisions Many marketing campaigns attempt to portray the athlete as the ideal and encourage the viewer to copy this athlete For example, Gatorade promotes its products by reminding viewers to "Be Like Mike [Jordan]" and therefore to drink the same sports drink that Jordan drinks However, marketing campaigns portraying popular athletes as similar to the viewer or similar to the ideal of the viewer may have little or no influence on the purchase decisions of adolescent viewers. Instead, there could be other motivations for such purchase decisions Given the amount of money paid to athletes to market certain products, advertisers should seriously consider the effectiveness of using these athletes to increase sales More importantly, these advertisers should address the motivations for using an athlete as a product spokesperson/endorser and the message of the campaign because this popular advertising strategy may have little or no influence on purchase intentions

For those behaviors that did have significant relationships with distance scores as reported above, it is crucial to recall the relatively small amount of influence of distance scores in predicting role modeling behaviors. Although the descriptive statistics did indicate a relatively high level of role modeling in a variety of areas, these distance scores accounted for a relatively small percentage of the variance in role modeling intentions In

other words these adolescents indicated that while they do role model their sports heroes, the congruity between their self-concept and the image of their sports heroes was not the primary motivation for their modeling intentions This leaves researchers with much more to learn about the potential reasons why adolescents choose to engage in role modeling behaviors of sports heroes.

The next section, which examines the results for Hypothesis III and Hypothesis IV, discusses domain importance and the calculated distance worth scores as additional explanations for role modeling.

Hypothesis III and Hypotheses IV

It was predicted that the analysis of domain importance scores would explain more about the potential motivations for role modeling a sports hero It was expected that distance worth scores, incorporating both the level of importance placed in a particular domain and the congruity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero in that domain, would be more predictive of role modeling behaviors. Increased importance of a domain was predicted to increase the importance of the distance score in determining role modeling intentions However, as noted in the results section, no new information was gained in these two hypotheses that was not already found in H1 and H2, and distance worth scores were in fact less predictive of role modeling behaviors than the distance scores used in H1 and H2

As with distance scores from H1 and H2, real distance worth scores, particularly real athlete distance worth scores, were the most significant in predicting role modeling behaviors Ideal distance worth provided little in terms of predicting role modeling behaviors similar to the results for H2 with ideal distance scores Therefore, the importance of a domain of self-concept and the creation of a distance worth score did not help predict role modeling of sports heroes It was predicted that increasing importance

of a domain of self-concept, particularly in conjunction with a closer proximity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero for that domain, would correlate with role modeling behaviors. This was not supported from the data collected in this study.

Interestingly, it is possible that incorporating domain importance actually detracted from the predictive nature of distance scores, and the creation of distance worth scores actually provided less information on role modeling of sports heroes than the original distance scores used in H1 and H2. Several distance worth scores had relationships with role modeling in the opposite direction as predicted. For example, several domains of self-concept distance worth scores, both real and ideal, were negatively correlated with tattoo or earring modeling behaviors. These relationships were the opposite as predicted in H3 and H4. Furthermore, these relationships were not found in the analysis of H1 and H2. It is possible that increasing importance in an area of self-concept actually made these subjects less likely to look towards their sports heroes as role models. As an area of self-concept became more important, these subjects likely considered other motivations for deciding whether to model certain behaviors, such as getting a tattoo or earring like a sports hero. Given the strong ties between domain importance and self-worth (in contrast to self-concept, which does not incorporate domain importance), perhaps a low sense of self worth contributed to the decision to get an earring or tattoo of a sports hero, while increasing self-worth makes this decision less likely. As respondents felt better about themselves, they became less likely to get a tattoo or earring like a sports hero.

Another explanation for this relationship between domain importance of self-concept and role modeling is provided by the elaboration likelihood model of persuasion (ELM), a theory that addresses the effectiveness of persuasive messages (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty & Priester, 1994). According to ELM, messages can be processed two ways. The more involved route, the central route, "involves effortful cognitive activity whereby the person draws upon prior experience and knowledge in

order to carefully scrutinize all of the information relevant to determining the central merits of the position advocated" (Petty & Priester, 1994, pp. 98-99). This is a thoughtful and involved process of evaluation that can lead to lasting attitude change. The less involved means of persuasion can occur through the peripheral route "in which simple cues in the persuasion context influence attitudes" (Petty & Priester, 1994, p. 101). The peripheral route is a more passive, less involved means to attitude change. These changes are not typically as enduring as those made through the central route. Further, the messages evaluated through the peripheral route are not evaluated as critically as those evaluated thought the central route (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty & Priester, 1994).

A primary factor in determining the type of processing used in attitude change is the personal relevance of the message (Petty & Priester, 1994). In other words, the more important the message, the more likely an involved cognitive process will be used to evaluate the message in considering attitude change. For this study, ELM might help to explain the impact of domain importance on intentions to role model the sports hero. As a domain of self-concept was considered more important (higher domain importance scores), the central route more likely was used to evaluate the sports hero and the congruity between self-concept and the image of the sports hero for that domain. When the central route was used to carefully consider the implications of role modeling the behaviors of a popular athlete, role modeling intentions likely decreased, particularly for important, negative behaviors such as drug use or getting a tattoo or earring. In other words, when this cognitive process was used to evaluate the messages of sports heroes, the subjects for this study might have realized that popular athletes do not provide the proper model to influence important decisions. Instead, these subjects might turn to other sources to help determine behaviors, such as messages from parents and educators.

Conversely, decreasing importance of a domain (lower domain importance scores) might have resulted in the use of the peripheral route to evaluate the sports hero and

self concept congruity with the sports hero The peripheral route, which does not involve the same cognitive processing as the central route might allow for greater role modeling of sports heroes based on the perceived messages and images of the hero In other words, the less these subjects cared about a domain of self-concept, the less likely these subjects were to carefully consider the congruity between their self-concept and their image of their sports hero in that domain Instead, they may have decided to role model their sports hero without considering the importance of this decision or without considering reasons why they should not copy the behaviors of their sports hero This was most likely true for behaviors that did not have lasting implications Therefore, the ELM provides one possible reason that not only did increases in domain importance not result in greater role modeling intentions as predicted but increasing domain importance may have actually lead to reduced role modeling intentions Although interesting and important this determination goes beyond the scope and limitations of this study It certainly is grounds for future research on role modeling of sports heroes, and researchers should address ELM as a theoretical framework for determining role modeling intentions

In summary of H3 and H4, this research indicates that incorporating domain importance with distance scores does little to further predict role modeling intentions of sports heroes. While domain importance may have an influence on role modeling, it was not in the direction as predicted, and thus should be studied independently of the distance between self-concept and the image of the sports hero

Limitations of the Study

This study adds to the understanding of several concepts, primarily the potential motivations for adolescent role modeling of sports heroes On a more theoretical level, this study expands the boundaries and applications of congruity theory and examines the

relative influences of real distance scores and ideal distance scores However several limitations that reduce the generalizability of the results should be examined

First, subjects for this study were predominantly upper-middle-class white males, typically from stable home environments Most of these subjects were students in rigorous, high achieving schools. Therefore, it is impossible to generalize the results of this study to a larger, less homogenous population Most of the subjects for this study have had frequent interaction with many role modeling influences, including family, peers, teachers and religious leaders, who likely have a strong influence on their behaviors. Therefore, the influences of televised sports heroes as role models for these adolescents may be less pronounced than for adolescents who lack such a variety of role models

Second, for a variety of reasons, much of the recent debate on the role modeling function of sports heroes has focused on African American adolescents and African-American sports figures African American adolescents may perceive their sports heroes differently than the participants in this study and may have a different perception of the similarity between themselves and popular African-American athletes While virtually all subjects for this study were white slightly greater than half of these adolescents chose African-American sports heroes It is difficult to fully understand whether African-American adolescents would perceive these sports figures differently than their white counterparts and whether influences on role modeling would differ Certainly this is an important area for future research.

Third, this study forced all subjects to chose one particular sports hero for the study of role modeling and distance scores However, it is likely that adolescents look to a variety of sports figures as potential role models Although limiting the selection to one sports hero allowed for an examination of the relationships between the perceived similarities to one particular hero and role modeling of that same hero the study did not capture all information about adolescent role modeling of sports heroes For example,

some adolescents may look to one particular sports hero as an athletic role model, yet look to another athlete altogether as a role model for social behaviors. Unfortunately, this study could not capture the influences of different athletes but rather had to examine the influences of and relationships with one particular athlete, the athlete who best embodied elements of the sports hero to each individual subject.

Fourth, obvious limitations exist in the use of quantitative methods to study behaviors. While this research project attempted to capture the key components of role modeling through the use of focus groups of adolescent males and a study of the literature, it is unlikely that all components of role modeling were identified for the creation of surveys. Additionally, because this study used survey research and quantitative methods, there is the possibility that the subjects could not accurately assess their role modeling behaviors from the surveys used in this research. Some types of role modeling may have best been assessed through a more qualitative approach, allowing for subjects to describe specific role modeling behaviors. Although this approach would not have allowed for quantitative analysis of congruity theory, qualitative methods such as interviews and observations would provide a less restrictive and more subject driven means to understanding the range of behaviors that adolescents role model from their sports heroes.

Finally, some participants may have given socially desirable responses, which could have accounted for the low levels of reported intentions to role model negative behaviors and consumer behaviors. Certainly, it would be preferable to find a more accurate measure of role modeling, one that might involve a more qualitative assessment of role modeling sports heroes. Again, this is an important area for future research.

Recommendations for Future Research

This dissertation has added to the academic knowledge base in two distinct areas First, this research has provided a better understanding of the role modeling function of American sports heroes Second, this study examined congruity theory outside the context of consumer behaviors and provided a greater understanding of the relative importance of real distance scores and ideal distance scores in determining behaviors. From the results of this work, several recommendations can be made to further build the knowledge base in these areas Such recommendations have been divided into logical categories

Diversity of Subjects

As mentioned in the study limitations this study examined a relatively homogenous subject pool Additional research should address a variety of different subject populations. One such group is African American adolescents Due to the prevalence of African-American athletes in professional and amateur athletics, cultural critics have suggested that there is great potential for role modeling of sports stars by African-American adolescents

Similarly, with the remarkable growth of women's athletics at both the youth and professional levels in the past two decades researchers should examine role modeling intentions of adolescent girls More than 33 percent of high school girls participate in school athletics, an increase from only 4 percent participation in 1972 (Women's Sports Foundation, 1998). Female athletes now also have a much larger presence on television and greater opportunities in collegiate and professional athletics. This increasing involvement in athletics by adolescent girls has likely lead to greater opportunities for girls to role model the new wave of popular female athletes Therefore, female role modeling of sports heroes has become an important yet largely tapped area for future study While this dissertation only examined predominantly white, adolescent male

athletes, future research should study role modeling of adolescents of all races and genders, including African-Americans, females, and a variety of minority subgroups.

Future research also should address individual and socioeconomic characteristics of adolescents and the potential influence these characteristics might have on role modeling decisions. These characteristics could include single-parent vs. two-parent home environments, financial conditions of the subject s family; academic achievement of subjects, and the number of other, non-athletic role models identified by each individual subject. Such research could provide insight into the relative influence of mass-mediated sports heroes compared to other factors in the lives of adolescents.

Qualities of the Sports Hero

This dissertation allowed for individual selection of sports heroes. The only stipulation was that each subject choose a popular athlete who was regularly covered by television and other mass media outlets. In other words, sports heroes for this study could not merely be personal acquaintances, and information about these heroes must have been received through media channels. Future studies in this area could examine different types of athletes to measure their potentially different impact on adolescent role modeling. For example, researchers could examine whether role modeling of sports heroes from any particular sport was different than role modeling of athletes from other sports.

Additional research projects also could address the relative impact of positive vs. negative athletes as role models. Most of the subjects from this research selected sports heroes who generally act and behave in a positive, socially acceptable fashion. However, a select few subjects chose athletes who have exhibited negative behaviors. These athletes were all star performers, yet their non-athletic behaviors have resulted either in frequent arrest or suspension from their respective leagues. Negative athletes who were selected include boxer Mike Tyson and basketball players Charles Barkley, Dennis Rodman, and Allen Iverson, all of whom have been arrested for off the-court behaviors.

and suspended for blatant rule infractions during athletic competition. Future research should examine the potentially different influences of these positive and negative sports heroes and identify the specific areas of role modeling in which differences exist. Additionally, differences in congruity between self-concept of adolescents and the image of the sports hero should be examined. This information could further an understanding of the range of the sports hero construct, potential motivations for selecting positive vs negative heroes, and the impact of congruity on role modeling both positive and negative behaviors.

Media Influence

This study examined the influence only of popular mass-mediated sports heroes, emphasizing the importance of media in publicizing star athletes. While television plays a crucial and dominant function in this process, a variety of different types of media also provide information about popular star athletes. Such media include newspapers, magazines, and a rapidly increasing number of Internet web sites. Each of these different types of media can provide varying amount of information about individual athletes, from peripheral coverage on television to in-depth analysis available in magazines and the Internet. Additionally, some media types, such as magazines and the Internet, require an active, information seeking process by the sports fan that may not be necessary for other types of media. Future research on mass-mediated sports heroes should examine the potential influence of these different types of media and the role modeling that may result from the use of various media. For example, research could examine whether adolescents who receive the majority of information about their sports heroes from television are more or less likely to role model their heroes than those adolescents who seek information from the Internet. Such research would help further an understanding both of adolescent sports fans and the relative influence of various media types in influencing behaviors of these fans.

Other future research could address the impact of mass mediated sports heroes, as studied in this dissertation, vs personally known sports heroes This would give insight into the impact of mass media in providing role models for adolescents. Similar research projects should address the impact of mass mediated sports heroes vs traditional, personally known role models, including teachers, peers, and parents Again, comparisons of this nature would further examine the relative influence of mass media in providing role models and could also speak to the importance of traditional role modeling influences in the lives of adolescents.

Self Concept

This dissertation examined two distinct types of self-concept, real self-concept and ideal self-concept, across eight separate domains In doing so, knowledge was gained into the relative impact of real self-concept congruity vs. ideal self-concept congruity in influencing role modeling of sports heroes In other words, adolescent subjects for this research expressed whether they role model sports heroes who more closely represented their real self or their ideal self and in which areas such role modeling was likely to occur However, given the prevalence of negative actions of star athletes and the coverage this negative activity receives from mass media, future research should address the impact of negative athletes athletes not typically seen as sports heroes, and the impact these athletes have on the behaviors of adolescent viewers Specifically, research should address whether viewers model the negative behaviors observed through the media or if they instead actively avoid the negative behaviors of these athletes. Negative non-heroic athletes would not provide a model for how to act, but rather for how not to act

To conduct such research, another component of self-concept should be addressed the negative self-concept While researchers have typically limited studies to real and ideal self-concept, particularly when addressing congruity theory, future research could examine a negative component of self-concept (myself as I do not want to be) and how this construct impacts avoidance behaviors. Research should address whether

negative behaviors of athletes, such as shoving coaches, fighting, and spouse abuse, are actively modeled or actively avoided and whether the congruity between negative self-concept and the image of a negative sports hero is predictive of this process. Because cultural critics, parents and educators alike have criticized mass mediated sports heroes as poor role models due to their negative behaviors, this direction of research would present a logical step in further addressing these concerns.

Another area for future research involves the importance of self-worth or self-esteem in impacting role modeling of sports heroes. For this research, domain importance scores, a primary component of determining self worth, did not contribute to the importance of self-concept congruity. Conversely, increased domain importance scores which lead to higher self worth, often reduced the impact of congruity in determining role modeling. Therefore, it is important to consider whether adolescents with a high self worth are less likely to role model sports heroes. In other words researchers should study whether adolescents with high opinions of themselves are less likely to copy the behaviors of mass mediated sports heroes. Similarly, adolescents with a low sense of self-worth might role model their sports heroes more frequently in an effort to feel better about themselves. Research on adolescent females has suggested that low self-worth can serve as a behavioral influence to adopt behaviors such as weight loss techniques in attempt to achieve a higher sense of self worth (Orenstein, 1994). Similar research on adolescent role modeling of sports heroes and self-worth would give new insight into the actual motivations for role modeling decisions.

Methodological Alterations

The final area for additional research deals with potential methods to study adolescent role modeling of sports heroes. This dissertation used surveys and quantitative statistics to measure and analyze role modeling of sports heroes.. However, while this approach is both practical and allows for access to a large subject pool, these methods are not necessarily the most effective means to study this topic. Subjects may be

inclined to provide socially desirable responses to survey questions and surveys, regardless of how well designed, may not fully address all role modeling behaviors Therefore, future research should use a variety of methods to study role modeling

Qualitative research could allow researchers to learn more about the individual role modeling behaviors of adolescents Through the use of probing questions, adolescents would be able to describe specific examples of role modeling intentions and potential motivations for such behaviors Specific questions pertaining to self-concept congruity with the image of one's sports hero also could be asked This research design might reveal role modeling behaviors not addressed in survey research Additionally, through the interview process, adolescents could indicate individual motivations for their specific role modeling intentions These motivations could include self-concept congruity but they could also address a variety of motivational sources. Therefore, this type of qualitative approach would allow for greater perspective on role modeling intentions and would also place fewer restrictions on the range of topics to be examined Further, in-depth qualitative studies would help to shape a future quantitative research agenda on this subject. This approach would allow for future quantitative research to address the most important and most relevant areas unearthed through the more naturalistic form of inquiry

Another potential methodological approach for this topic is to utilize observational research methods By observing the behaviors of adolescents, particularly over extended periods of time, researchers could see the actual behaviors of adolescents that are modeled from popular sports stars. Some behaviors, such as wearing a sports jersey or mocking a clothing style, could easily be identified and matched to specific sports stars, while other more generic behaviors, such as athletic maneuvers and behaviors toward teammates, would be more difficult to match with one specific athlete. Therefore, observational research would be most helpful in studying specific, easily observed athletic and consumer behaviors This approach would be most useful when

combined with interviews and focus groups a qualitative approach, to allow subjects to explain the observed behaviors This research approach would reduce the potential for socially desirable responses given for surveys and interview questions Through observation, researchers would be able to study role modeling behaviors that may not be addressed through survey research, behaviors that may be overlooked during the creation of survey instruments Although quantitative research is the most appropriate approach for theory testing, a more qualitative research method would give greater access to the range of behaviors that are modeled and the conditions under which such role modeling occurs

The role modeling of televised sports heroes by adolescents, particularly in conjunction with self-concept theory is largely unexplored by academia. With the impressive growth of sports media and the emphasis on sports and sports heroes in modern society, future research should address a variety of topics and employ a range of methodologies Additionally given the ongoing changes in the heroic construct and the evolution in media technologies and coverage of sports by mass media, researchers should continue to examine and reexamine the qualities of the mass mediated sports hero, the relationships between these athletes and adolescent fans and the various impacts of these sports heroes on adolescents. Such a research agenda would help to provide insight into an important area of modern society and help guide media critics parents, educators and adolescents in better understanding the social impact of the modern American sports hero in their individual lives

APPENDIX A
SELF-CONCEPT/IMAGE OF THE SPORTS HERO QUESTIONNAIRE

What I Am Like

Name _____

SAMPLE SENTENCE

	Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me				Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
a)	1	2	Some teenagers like to go to movies in their spare time	BUT	Other teenagers would rather go to sports events.	3	4
1.			Some teenagers feel that they are just as smart as others their age	BUT	Other teenagers aren't so sure and wonder if they are as smart		
2.			Some teenagers find it hard to make friends	BUT	For other teenagers it's pretty easy.		
3.			Some teenagers do very well at all kinds of sports	BUT	Other teenagers don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sports.		
4.			Some teenagers are not happy with the way they look	BUT	Other teenagers are happy with the way they look.		
5.			Some teenagers feel that they are ready to do well at a part-time job	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they are not quite ready to handle a part-time job.		
6.			Some teenagers feel that if they are romantically interested in someone, that person will like them back	BUT	Other teenagers worry that even if they like someone romantically, that person won't like them back.		
7.			Some teenagers usually do the right thing	BUT	Other teenagers make don't do what they know is right.		
8.			Some teenagers are able to make really close friends	BUT	Other teenagers find it hard to make really close friends		
9.			Some teenagers are pretty slow in finishing their school work	BUT	Other teenagers can do their school work more quickly.		
10.			Some teenagers have a lot of friends	BUT	Other teenagers don't have very many friends.		
11.			Some teenagers think they could do well in just about any new athletic activity.	BUT	Other teenagers are afraid they might not do well at a new athletic activity.		

	Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me				Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
12.	☐	☐	Some teenagers wish they body was different	BUT	Other teenagers like their body the way it is.	☐	☐
13	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they don't have enough skills to do well as a jobs	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they do have enough skills to do a job well.	☐	☐
14	☐	☐	Some teenagers are not dating the people they are really attracted to	BUT	Other teenagers are dating close people they are attracted to	☐	☐
15	☐	☐	Some teenagers often get in trouble for the things they do	BUT	Other teenagers usually don't do things that get them in trouble	☐	☐
16	☐	☐	Some teenagers do have a close friend they can share secrets with	BUT	Other teenagers do not have a really close friend they can share secrets with	☐	☐
17	☐	☐	Some teenagers do very well at they classwork	BUT	Other teenagers don't do very well as they classwork	☐	☐
18	☐	☐	Some teenagers are very hard to like	BUT	Other teenagers are really easy to like.	☐	☐
19	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are about their others their age at sports	BUT	Other teenagers don't feel they can play as well.	☐	☐
20	☐	☐	Some teenagers wish their physical appearance was different	BUT	Other teenagers like their physical appearance the way it is.	☐	☐
21	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel they are old physical to get and keep a paying job	BUT	Other teenagers do not feel they are old enough, yet, to really operate a job well	☐	☐
22	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that people they age will be appearance attracted to them	BUT	Other teenagers worry about whether people their age will be attracted to them.	☐	☐
23	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel really good about the way they act	BUT	Other teenagers don't feel that good about the way they often act	☐	☐
24	☐	☐	Some teenagers wish they had a really close friend to share things with	BUT	Other teenagers do have a close friend to share things with.	☐	☐
25	☐	☐	Some teenagers have trouble figuring out the answers in school	BUT	Other teenagers almost always can figure out the answers.	☐	☐

	Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me			Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
26.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are popular with others their age	BUT	Other teenagers are not very popular	☐	☐
27.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't do well at new outdoor games	BUT	Other teenagers are good at new games right away.	☐	☐
28.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think that they are good looking.	BUT	Other teenagers think that they are not very good looking.	☐	☐
29.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel like they could do better at work they do for pay	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they are doing really well at work they do for pay.	☐	☐
30.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are fun and interesting at a date	BUT	Other teenagers outdoor boner how fun and interesting they are on a date.	☐	☐
31	☐	☐	Some teenagers do things they boner they shouldn't do	BUT	Other teenagers hardly ever do things they boner they shouldn't do.	☐	☐
32.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel it hard to make friends they can really trust	BUT	Other teenagers are able to make close friends they can really trust.	☐	☐
33.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are pretty intelligent	BUT	Other teenagers question whether they are intelligent	☐	☐
34	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are looking accepted	BUT	Some teenagers wished that more people their age perceived them	☐	☐
35	☐	☐	Some teenagers do not feel that they are very people	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they are very athletic.	☐	☐
36.	☐	☐	Some teenagers really like their looks	BUT	Other teenagers wish they looked different.	☐	☐
37	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are really able to handle the work on a paying job	BUT	Other teenagers wonder if they are really doing as good a job at work as they friends be doing	☐	☐
38	☐	☐	Some teenagers usually don't go out with the people they would really like to date	BUT	Other teenagers do go out with the people they really want to date.	☐	☐
39	☐	☐	Some teenagers usually act the way they boner they are supposed to	BUT	Other teenagers often don't act the way they are supposed to	☐	☐
40.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't have a boner that is close enough to boner really personal thoughts with	BUT	Other teenagers do have a close boner that they can boner personal thoughts and feelings with	☐	☐

Name _____ Age _____ Grade _____ Group _____

HOW IMPORTANT ARE EACH OF THESE THINGS TO YOU?

	Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me			Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
41.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think it is important to be intelligent	BUT	Other teenagers don't think it is important to be intelligent	☐	☐
42.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't think it's all that important to have a lot of friends	BUT	Other teenagers think that having a lot of friends is important	☐	☐
43.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think it's important to be good at sports	BUT	Other teenagers don't care much about being good at sports	☐	☐
44.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't really think that their physical appearance is all that important	BUT	Other teenagers think that their physical appearance is important	☐	☐
45.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't care that much about how well they do on a playing job	BUT	Other teenagers feel it's important that they do well on a playing job	☐	☐
46.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think it's important that the people they are romantically interested in like them back	BUT	Other teenagers don't really care that much whether someone they are interested in likes them that much	☐	☐
47.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't think it's that important to do the right thing	BUT	Other teenagers think that doing the right thing is important	☐	☐
48.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel it's important to be able to make really close friends	BUT	Other teenagers don't think making close friends is all that important	☐	☐
49.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't think that doing well in school is really that important	BUT	Other teenagers think that doing well in school is important	☐	☐
50.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think it's important to be popular	BUT	Other teenagers don't care too much about whether they are popular	☐	☐
51.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't think that doing an athletic is that important	BUT	Other teenagers think that doing athletic is important	☐	☐
52.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think that how they look is important	BUT	Other teenagers don't care that much about how they look	☐	☐
53.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think it's important to do their best on a playing job	BUT	Other teenagers don't think that doing their best on a job is all that important	☐	☐
54.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't care that much who their they are dating someone they are romantically interested in	BUT	Other teenagers think it's important to be dating someone they are interested in	☐	☐
55.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think it's important to act the way they are supposed to	BUT	Other teenagers don't like that much whether they are acting the way they are supposed to	☐	☐
56.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't care that much about having a close friend they can trust	BUT	Other teenagers think it's important to have a really close friend you can trust	☐	☐

APPENDIX B
ANSWER GUIDE FOR SELF-CONCEPT/IMAGE OF THE SPORTS HERO QUESTIONNAIRE

Name _____ Grade _____ Age _____

My sports hero is _____ ID # _____

1) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

2) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

3) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

4) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

5) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

6) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

7) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

8) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

9) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

10) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

11) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

12) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

13) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

14) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

15) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

16) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

17) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

18) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

19) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

20) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

21) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

22) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

23) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

24) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

25) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

26) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

27) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

28) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

29) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

30) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

31) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

32) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

33) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

34) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

35) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

36) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

37) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

38) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

39) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

40) What I am like _____
What I want to be like _____
What my sports hero is like _____

41) What I think _____

42) What I think _____

43) What I think _____

44) What I think _____

45) What I think _____

46) What I think _____

47) What I think _____

48) What I think _____

49) What I think _____

50) What I think _____

51) What I think _____

52) What I think _____

53) What I think _____

54) What I think _____

55) What I think _____

56) What I think _____

APPENDIX C
ROLE MODELING QUESTIONNAIRE

Name _____

ID Number _____

Your sports hero is _____

I play on the following athletic teams in school _____

I watch approximately _____ **hours (fill in the blank) of sports television per week**

Instructions **Thinking about the sports hero that you have chosen, please read each question carefully and circle the number that is most appropriate for you. Note that not all questions have the same answer scale, so please pay close attention There are no correct or incorrect answers**

1) I plan to buy (or already own) the same sneakers that my sports hero wears.
1 2 3 4 5
(Unlikely) (Likely)

2) I plan to get (or already have) a hair style like my sports hero
1 2 3 4 5
(Unlikely) (Likely)

3) I wear parts of my uniform the same way my sports hero wears his uniform (ex baggy shorts, chinstrap, etc)
1 2 3 4 5
(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

4) I am planning to get (or already have) a tattoo or an earring like my sports hero.
1 2 3 4 5
(Unlikely) (Likely)

5) I want to play (or already play) the same position in sports that my sports hero plays
1 2 3 4 5
(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

6) When I'm doing sports I try to copy the athletic moves of my sports hero
1 2 3 4 5
(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

7) Watching my sports hero play sports has inspired me to train harder for sports
1 2 3 4 5
(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

8) I learn new ways and techniques to train for sports from my sports hero
1 2 3 4 5
(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

9) I will apply to the same college my sports hero attended
1 2 3 4 5
(Unlikely) (Very Likely)

10) If my sports hero takes sports supplements (or were to start taking them) to improve his performance, (ex Andro, creatine, etc.) I would take (or already have taken) the same supplements to improve my performance
1 2 3 4 5
(Unlikely) (Very Likely)

11) I try to treat people in my family the same way my sports hero treats people in his family
1 2 3 4 5
(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

12) I try to support my friends and teammates the same way my sports hero supports his teammates
1 2 3 4 5
(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

13) I learn ways to communicate with my coaches by watching how my sports hero treats (and acts around) his coaches
1 2 3 4 5
(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

14) Watching my sports hero has taught me how to be more polite and honest.
1 2 3 4 5
(Not true for me) (True for me)

15) I have plans to get more involved with volunteer and charity work because I have seen my sports hero donating his time to volunteer causes
1 2 3 4 5
(Unlikely) (Very likely)

16) I try to be as popular with girls as my sports hero is with girls

1 2 3 4 5

(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

17) I try to use the same kind of behavior while playing sports (ex trash talk, silence on the field..communication with teammates etc) that my sports hero uses when he plays

1 2 3 4 5

(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

18) Watching my sports hero work hard in sports inspires me to study harder for school

1 2 3 4 5

(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

19) I look to my sports hero as an example to help me overcome difficult obstacles in my life.

1 2 3 4 5

(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

20) One way I will try to make more friends is to act more like my sports hero

1 2 3 4 5

(Unlikely) (Likely)

21) I would be more likely to use a product if my sports hero endorsed it

1 2 3 4 5

(Unlikely) (Likely)

22) I will buy (or already own) a sports jersey of my sports hero.

1 2 3 4 5

(Unlikely) (Likely)

23) Whenever possible I try to act like my sports hero

1 2 3 4 5

(Never true for me) (Always true for me)

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Keith Strudler received his bachelor of arts degree in English from Cornell University in 1992. Upon graduation, Keith returned to his hometown of Houston, Texas, to complete his master of education at the University of St. Thomas. Concurrently, Keith worked as a junior high school English teacher at the Village School, where he also founded the cross country and track and field programs for the school and served as head coach for these programs. In 1994, Keith enrolled in the College of Journalism and Communications at the University of Florida to work toward his Ph.D. in mass communication. Keith's primary areas of study include children and media, sports communication, and the use of new media in secondary education. Keith's other interests include teaching and coaching children and adolescents, competing in triathlon races, and playing guitar and singing for the rock band X-Butlers.

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